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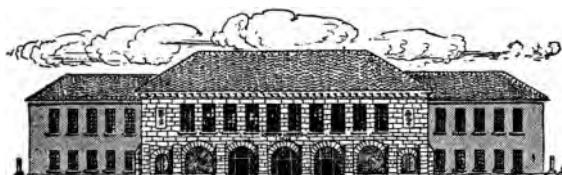
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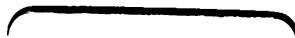
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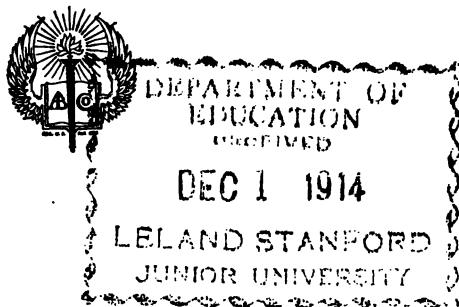
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A GERMAN GRAMMAR

BY
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WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY



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HARRIS. GERM. GRAM.

E. P. I.

P R E F A C E

In preparing this book I have tried to meet the needs of those who already have some acquaintance with German and with the elementary facts of English grammar. While this assumption that the reader possesses a certain minimum amount of knowledge has not relieved me of the necessity of discussing the most rudimentary matters, such, for example, as the declension of the definite article, it has enabled me to dispense with many explanations and definitions. It has also guided me in the treatment and arrangement of the materials of the grammar. The first part contains a succinct, but I hope sufficient, account of the inflections of the language, this being the phase of the subject which I can presume to be best known by any one who uses the book. The second part passes on to a relatively more extended discussion of the syntax. The consideration of the formation of words has been carried over to the third part. This is a departure from the usual order of arrangement, but seems to me to be justified by the fact that every one who learns a foreign language is, at the beginning, more vitally interested in the inflection and use of words than in their derivation. The two sizes of type used throughout the book reflect my opinion, probably often little better than a guess, of the relative importance of the matters discussed.

Though the period with which this grammar is concerned begins with the great writers of the latter half of

the eighteenth century, my starting-point has always been the usage of good present-day prose. I have, however, tried to explain the more important deviations from this usage found in poetry or older prose or colloquial speech. I have not mentioned dialect. It would be folly to believe that it is possible to treat exhaustively, within the limits of a single volume, the literature of fully a century and a half on its grammatical side, but it is natural, and perhaps pardonable, in me to wish a career of modest usefulness for my book.

No list of the authorities used by me is given. I have attempted through study of the written and spoken language to see the facts of its grammar with my own eyes, but I have also made free use of the work of others and hope that this acknowledgment of large indebtedness is sufficient. A similar statement must be made about the illustrative sentences in the Syntax. They all come from German sources. I have found them in books, periodicals, newspapers, advertisements, placards, and the like. If my own materials, however, gave no illustration of a syntactical fact, or at best a poor one, I have not hesitated to borrow one wherever I could find it, and hope again that this general acknowledgment of indebtedness is sufficient. My thanks are due to three of my colleagues: to Mr. A. C. Klocksiem and Professor E. S. Meyer for helpful care in reading the proof, and to Professor H. A. Aikins for patient and fruitful labor on both proof and manuscript.

CHARLES HARRIS.

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PART I

SPELLING, PRONUNCIATION, INFLECTION

MANY of the lists of words given in this book are left incomplete, as they are supposed to illustrate merely the ordinary usage of the language of to-day. Further details are left to the dictionary. The English translations in these lists are only intended to identify, and if a word has several meanings, the one which seems to be commonest is chosen. The terms "regular" and "regularly" are employed to indicate the usual practice at present. They do not imply that there are no exceptions. When the exceptions are numerous or important, further comments are given.

SPELLING

1. The Alphabet.

GERMAN	ROMAN	NAME	GERMAN	ROMAN	NAME		
Ä	a	A a	ah	Ñ	n	N n	enn
ß	b	B b	bay	Ö	o	O o	oh
Œ	c	C c	tsay	Þ	p	P p	pay
Đ	d	D d	day	ꝑ	q	Q q	koo
Œ	e	E e	ay	Ŗ	r	R r	air
F	f	F f	eff	Ŗ	s	S s	ess
G	g	G g	gay	Ŗ	t	T t	tay
Ḩ	h	H h	hah	Ŗ	u	U u	oo
Ӡ	i	I i	ee	Ŗ	v	V v	fow
Ӡ	i	J j	yot	Ŗ	w	W w	vay
Ŗ	k	K k	kah	Ŗ	x	X x	ix
Ŗ	l	L l	ell	Ŗ	y	Y y	ipsilon
Ŗ	m	M m	emm	Ŗ	z	Z z	tset

The modified vowels are Ä, å, Ö, õ, Ñ, û. Notice also the digraphs ä, ch, ð, ck, ß, sz, ð, tz.

PART I

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SPELLING

1. The Alphabet.

GERMAN	ROMAN	NAME	GERMAN	ROMAN	NAME	
À	à	A a	ah	Ñ	n	enn
ß	b	B b	bay	Ö	o	oh
Œ	c	C c	tsay	Þ	p	pay
Đ	d	D d	day	ꝑ	q	koo
È	e	E e	ay	Ŗ	r	air
Ḟ	f	F f	eff	Ŗ	f	ess
Ԍ	g	G g	gay	Ꝕ	t	tay
Ḩ	h	H h	hah	ꝕ	u	oo
Ӡ	i	I i	ee	ꝕ	v	fow
Ӡ	j	J j	yot	ꝕ	w	vay
ꝑ	k	K k	kah	ꝑ	x	ix
ꝑ	l	L l	ell	ꝑ	y	ipsilon
ꝑ	m	M m	emm	ꝑ	z	tset

The modified vowels are À, à, ß, ö, ñ, ü. Notice also the digraphs ð, ch, ð, ck, ß, sz, þ, tz.

1. The names of the letters are given above in English spelling, "ah" being pronounced like the exclamation *ah*, "ay" like *ay* in *pay*, etc. The modified vowels are named by uttering their sound or by saying, for example, "modified-a" or "a-umlaut." The digraphs and other combinations of consonants have the names of the letters forming them; thus, ß is called "ess-tset."

2. The letter e, in agreement with older usage, is still often found after the capitals of the modified vowels instead of the dots above them; thus, Ae, Oe, Ue for Ä, Ö, Ü. It is also used regularly elsewhere in some proper names; Goethe, for example.

3. Short, or final, s is found at the end of a word or member of a compound and before suffixes of derivation beginning with a consonant; as, *Fels*, *Halsader*, *Weisheit*, *Häschchen*. Long ſ is used elsewhere, unless a capital is required; as, *sprechen*, *weise*, *felsig*, *Gefinde*, *reist*.

(a) Borrowed words generally follow these rules, but ſ is regularly used at the end of the first member of a compound before a vowel and is allowed before p and t; thus, *transitiv*, *Transport* or *Transport*.

4. Though ß and ſſ represent the same sound, ß occurs after a long vowel or diphthong, in the prefix *mifß*, before a consonant, and at the end of a word, while ſſ is used in all other situations. Thus, *Straße*, *schließen*, *mifächten*, *Fluſſufer*, *Häß*, *häſtlich*, but *Flüſſe*, *flüſſig*, *haffen*, *wiffen*.

5. The variation of the Latin alphabet used for the German words in this book is called Fraktur. There are other styles of German type, but they are mostly employed for headings and other ornamental purposes. German can also be printed in Roman type, with the substitution of ß for ß, though sz, fs, and ss also occur. The modified vowels should then be indicated by the dots, but the use of e, as in *Aepfel*, *koennen*, is not uncommon, especially outside of Germany. Roman type is, however, pretty much restricted to learned publications.

2. German Script.

CAPITAL	SMALL	EQUIVALENT	CAPITAL	SMALL	EQUIVALENT
<i>A</i>	<i>a</i>	a	<i>A</i>	<i>u</i>	n
<i>B</i>	<i>b</i>	b	<i>O</i>	<i>o</i>	o
<i>C</i>	<i>c</i>	c	<i>P</i>	<i>p</i>	p
<i>D</i>	<i>d</i>	d	<i>Q</i>	<i>q</i>	q
<i>E</i>	<i>w</i>	e	<i>R</i>	<i>w</i>	r
<i>F</i>	<i>f</i>	f	<i>P</i>	<i>P</i>	s
<i>G</i>	<i>g</i>	g	<i>Z</i>	<i>t</i>	t
<i>H</i>	<i>h</i>	h	<i>U</i>	<i>u</i>	u
<i>I</i>	<i>i</i>	i	<i>W</i>	<i>v</i>	v
<i>J</i>	<i>j</i>	j	<i>W</i>	<i>w</i>	w
<i>K</i>	<i>k</i>	k	<i>X</i>	<i>x</i>	x
<i>L</i>	<i>l</i>	l	<i>Y</i>	<i>y</i>	y
<i>M</i>	<i>m</i>	m	<i>Z</i>	<i>z</i>	z

Also *B* for *ß*

1. German may also be written with the Roman script. See § 1, 5 for substitutes for ß.

3. **Initial Capitals.** As in English, capitals are employed at the beginning of a sentence or line of poetry or direct quotation, and with proper names and titles (for example, *der Deutsche Kaiser, das Tote Meer*). Further rules, mostly at variance with English usage, are as follows:

1. Every noun and every word used as a noun begins with a capital; as, *Buch, der Gute, etwas Gutes, im Freien, das Laufen, das Nichts, das Abc.*

(a) But a noun or a substantive adjective used as another part of speech, for example as an adverb or preposition or as equivalent to a separable prefix, begins with a small letter. Thus, *mittels, trotz, ein bisschen, abends, achtgeben, im stande sein, am besten, fürs erste, den kürzeren ziehen*. Uninflected substantive adjectives and those in some set expressions are also written small; as, *alt und jung, durch dick und dünn, jeder beliebige, der erste beste*. Usage is still unsettled, but the tendency is toward the freer employment of the small letter.

2. *Sie*, meaning *you*, and its possessives, *Ihr, der Ihrige, etc.*, begin with a capital to distinguish them from the same words referring to the third person. *Du, ihr, dein, euer, etc.*, may begin with a capital in letters, where they are seen by the person addressed; otherwise they are mostly without the capital. *Er, sie* (fem. sing.), and *ihr*, addressed to one person and meaning *you*, together with their possessives, commonly appear with the capital. (See § 354, 2.) All other pronouns, including *ich*, now begin with a small letter.

3. Proper adjectives from names of persons and the indeclinables in *er* from names of towns and countries begin with a capital; as, *die Schillerschen Trauerspiele, der Berliner Bahnhof*. Other adjectives from names of towns and countries begin with a small letter, unless they are used substantively or in a title; as, *spanisch, englisch, amerikanisch, römisches*. A proper adjective from the name of a person

begins with a small letter if it becomes general in its application; as, die lutherische Kirche.

4. Spacing for Italics. As German has no italics, it spaces a word to make it emphatic or prominent; thus, man unterscheidet betonte und unbetonte Silben. Less frequently an accent or a capital is used; as, ein or Ein for the more usual e i n.

5. Division into Syllables. The rules for syllabication are chiefly useful in dividing a word at the end of a line. The place of division is commonly determined by the pronunciation, not by the etymology, of the word. Accordingly, a single consonant between two vowels is thrown with the latter vowel, and two or more consonants in the same position are divided by carrying the last one over to the second line; as, ge-gen, fe-nen, teil-ten, Fin-ger, Verwand-te, lämp-fen.

1. But *f* is not divided, and *d* becomes *t=t*; as, be-ste, Klo-ster, druf-fen, Brüf-fe.

2. *ch*, *sch*, *ph*, *th*, and *ß*, which represent simple sounds, are not divided; as, la-chen, deut-sche, So-phie, Ma-thedrale, drau-ßen.

3. Compounds are separated into their components and prefixes are cut off without regard to the pronunciation of the word. Thus, voll-end-en, aus-ge-hen, Inter-es-se, dar-um, her-ein, er-ei fern.

4. Foreign words are commonly treated like native words, except that combinations of *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *g*, *f* with *l* or *r* are regularly not divided; as, Pu-blicum, Me-trum.

PUNCTUATION

6. The German marks of punctuation will be recognized without difficulty, with the possible exception of the hyphen (=). The position of the quotation marks differs slightly from the English, as in „Morgenstunde hat Gold

im Munde". German punctuation is essentially the same as the closer style in English. The following are the chief exceptions:

1. **Comma.** (a) While parenthetical phrases and clauses are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas, *single words* which are parenthetical in their nature are not thus set off. This applies to single words equivalent to *however*, *surely*, *nevertheless*, *too*, etc. Thus, *der Herr aber lachte gar nicht; er wird hoffentlich nicht kommen; kaufen Sie mir auch ein Paar*.

(b) Both languages mark the omission of the conjunction in a series by the comma, but German omits the comma, and English regularly keeps it, if the conjunction stands before the last member of the series. Thus, *Lessing, Goethe und Schiller*, but *Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller*.

(c) In German *all subordinate clauses* are set off from the rest of the sentence, while English excepts some of them. Thus, *ich will, daß er heute Abend kommt; die ganze Welt weiß, was ich habe; das Herz war ruhig, wie die Wasserquelle; das Lied, welches sie sang, war hübsch*. This rule applies to such clauses whether they are complete, contracted, or elliptical, and whether they precede, follow, or are incorporated in the principal clause.

(d) Infinitive phrases equivalent to subordinate clauses are also set off, unless they are brief; as, *das ist die angenehmste Art, sich beliebt zu machen; sie glaubten, dann auch Nachtigallen zu sein*. Such infinitive phrases are found with *zu*, *um zu*, *ohne zu*, and *(an)statt zu*.

2. **Hyphen.** The hyphen is employed to mark the division of a word at the end of a line and sometimes to separate the parts of compound words. For its use at the end of a line see § 5. Most German compounds are treated like simple words, as, for example, *einmal*, *Schulhaus*, *Amtsgerichtsrat*. But the hyphen is employed, in part contrary to English usage, when two or more words make with another word, preceding or following, a loose compound; also in compounds of proper nouns or proper adjectives; and in very long compounds, and sometimes elsewhere, for clearness' sake. Thus, *auf- und abgehen*, *Speise- und Wartesaal*, *Botallänge oder -fülle*, *Jung-Stellung*, *Dehnungs-h*, *Haftpflicht-Versicherungsgesellschaft*.

3. **Apostrophe.** The apostrophe marks the omission of one or more letters which are ordinarily sounded, and may also indicate the genitive of a proper name ending in a sibilant; as, *geht's*, *'s war*, *heil'ge*, *Boß-Lüise*. It is not used in contractions of preposition and article nor when *i* is dropped from the suffix *is*; as, *ins*, *heim*, *Goethesch*, *Lessingsch*.

Older usage has the apostrophe much more frequently; as, Goethe's for Goethes, in's for ins.

4. **Dash and Exclamation Point.** These are employed more freely than in English. The dash often stands, especially in older usage, where we have a comma or the marks of parenthesis. The exclamation point frequently represents our period or interrogation point in lively or excited speech. It is also commonly found in the headings of letters; as, Geliebte Schwester! Ich habe, etc.

NEW RULES FOR SPELLING

7. Since 1901 the same rules for spelling have been officially established for all Germany and also for Austria and Switzerland. These rules are set forth in pamphlets issued by several of the states concerned, for example Prussia's *Regeln für die deutsche Rechtschreibung nebst Wörterverzeichniß*. The brief lists of words in these pamphlets are, however, inadequate except for a general guide, and some manual of orthography is therefore indispensable. The one followed here is Duden's *Orthographisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache*, which, in successive editions, has had wide currency for a number of years.

8. As many books are still in circulation which do not conform to the new rules, a brief summary of the most important changes, so far as they have not already been mentioned, is given here:

1. The confusion between ü and e has been largely removed by using ä where a kindred word has a, and putting e elsewhere; as, Ärmel, Ärm, räthen, Räthe; but Hering, not Häring, welsch, not wälsch. A similar distinction is made between ö and eu. A few words of like sound are distinguished by the spelling; as, Ahre, Ehre, Värche, Verche.

2. ai is used in only a few words, such as Hain, Kaiser, Mai; ei occurs elsewhere. oy and ey are antiquated except in a few proper names, as Bayern, Morderney. A few words of like sound are distinguished by the spelling; as, Seite, Saite, Weise, Waise.

3. i is preferred to ie in gibst, gibt, gib, sing, ging, hing; but ie, not i, is found in verbs in ieren. A few words of like sound are distinguished by the spelling; as, Fiber, Fieber, Stil, Stiel.

4. Doubled vowels are much less frequent. Silent h is also less used. It still appears in a number of words like sehen, Bloh, etc.,

where it has historical value, but is kept as a sign of lengthening only in stems ending in l, m, n, or r.

5. th and ph are now used in foreign words only; as in *Theater*, *Thron*, *Photographie*, *Sophie*. Therefore *Teil*, not *Theil*, *Adolf*, not *Adolph*.

6. t takes the place of dt except where t is added to d in the course of inflection; as, *Schwert*, not *Schwerdt*, tot, not todt; but *sandte*, *verwandt*. The spelling also distinguishes between *Stadt* and *Statt*.

7. ß, not ß, is used in *wes*, *des*, etc., in spite of *wessen*, *deßen*, etc. Notice also the ending *niß*, but *nisse*, etc.

8. f or z may be substituted for c in a number of familiar borrowed words; as, *Korridor*, *zentral*.

9. The rules permit, but do not require, the dropping of one of three like consonants brought together in making a compound word; as, *alliebend* or *allliebend*. But all three are kept in dividing at the end of a line; as, *all-liebend*. In *dennoch*, *Drittel*, and *Mittag* only two consonants are ever permitted.

PRONUNCIATION

9. Table of Sounds. The English equivalents in this table can only be approximately correct. Where there is no such equivalent, a reference is given to a later paragraph.

VOWELS

a = a in *father*

ö = o in *hold*

ē = a in *fate*

ö, see § 23, 2

ɛ = e in *met*

ü = oo in *moon*

ī, ie = i in *machine*

ü = oo in *foot*

ī = i in *hit*

ŋ = German i, but see § 25.

MODIFIED VOWELS

ă = ei in *their*

ö, see § 28

ă = e in *met*

ü, see § 29.

DIPHTHONGS

ai (ay) = i in *mind*

ei (ey) = i in *mind*

au = ou in *house*

eu = oi in *oil*

ău = oi in *oil*

ie = long German i, but see

§ 22, 1 a.

CONSONANTS

b = <i>b</i>	n = <i>n</i>
= <i>p</i> , when final	ng = <i>ng</i> in <i>singer</i>
c = <i>ts</i> before e, i, y, ä, ö	p = <i>p</i>
= <i>k</i> elsewhere	pf = <i>p</i> + <i>f</i>
ç , see § 43	ph = <i>f</i>
çhs = <i>x</i> , but see § 44	qu = German <i>fw</i> ; see § 61
d = <i>k</i>	r , trilled or guttural, never like English <i>r</i> ; see § 62
d = <i>d</i>	f = <i>s</i> in <i>has</i> before vowels = <i>s</i> in <i>sit</i> elsewhere
= <i>t</i> , when final	çh = <i>sh</i>
dt = <i>t</i>	þ = <i>shp</i> , when initial
f = <i>f</i> in <i>full</i>	ft = <i>shi</i> , when initial
g = <i>g</i> in <i>get</i>	ff , ß = <i>s</i> in <i>sit</i>
= <i>k</i> or ç , when final, but see § 49	t = <i>t</i> , but see § 68
gn = <i>g</i> + <i>n</i> , but see § 49, 3	th = <i>t</i> , never English <i>th</i>
h = <i>h</i> , when initial; silent elsewhere, but see § 50	z = German <i>z</i>
i = <i>y</i> in <i>yet</i>	v = <i>f</i> , but see § 71
k = <i>k</i>	w = <i>v</i> , but see § 72
ln = <i>k</i> + <i>n</i>	x = <i>x</i>
l = <i>l</i>	ȝ = <i>ts</i>
m = <i>m</i>	

10. Silent Letters. As compared with English, German has few silent letters. Doubled vowels are pronounced like single long vowels, and doubled consonants like single consonants. Thus, *Boot*, *Saal*; *lassen*, *hoffen*. But this rule does not apply to vowels or consonants made double in the composition or derivation of words. Thus, *beenden* is pronounced *be-enden*, not *bēnden*. For consonants when thus doubled see § 40. The *e* of *ie* is not sounded in German words, and **h** is regularly silent except when initial. Notice also **dt** and **th** in the table above. Otherwise every letter is

sounded in native German words, except, of course, where two or more letters represent a sound for which there is no separate character, as *ö*, *ng*, *sch*.

11. Final Vowels. are never silent. Even unaccented final *e* in words of more than one syllable is pronounced, having then about the sound of *e* in *mother* or of *a* in *comma* (see § 21, 3). Other vowels in this position should have their full long sound; as, *Fridā*, *Ottō*.

12. Vowel Sounds. We commonly make diphthongs of the English long vowels. The final element of the diphthong can easily be heard in slow pronunciation. Thus, with long *a* in *mate* or *pay*, it is nearly like short *i*. This prolonging should be avoided in German. The German long vowels therefore sound to us as if they were chopped off. Unaccented vowels (except *e*, for which see § 21, 3) should not be pronounced obscurely as in English. They have their true sound, though uttered quickly.

13. Consonant Sounds. Our pronunciation of the English final consonants after short vowels is also characterized by a kind of drawl or prolongation which should be avoided in German. Such German consonants also sound to us as if they were chopped off.

14. Action of the Vocal Organs. This difference in the sounds of vowels and consonants is due to a difference in the manner of articulation. In general, the vocal organs are more active in German than in English speech. The tongue is pushed farther forward or drawn farther back, the lips are often more protruded, etc. This results in an audible difference in sounds which are nominally the same. Therefore the table of sounds given above can only be approximately correct.

15. Standard of Pronunciation. There is no standard of pronunciation which Germans universally recognize. But a foreigner attempting to learn the language must follow some

standard. The table of sounds above is therefore based on the pronunciation of the German stage (the so-called *Bühnenausgesprache*), but some of the most widely spread deviations from this standard are mentioned below.

DESCRIPTION OF SOUNDS

16. The description of German sounds presents several difficulties. As already explained, sounds nominally the same in English and German are generally slightly different. English keywords, no matter how carefully chosen, are not necessarily pronounced alike by all who speak English. Though German spelling is much more rational than English, there are more sounds than letters. Besides, German has several sounds that are not found in English. A phonetic description of a sound can seldom be so accurate that the reader can be sure of reproducing the sound correctly. No method, or combination of methods, of representing sounds is therefore adequate without the aid of actual speech. In the following paragraphs the use of keywords is supplemented in an elementary way by a phonetic description of many of the sounds.

VOWELS

17. The following technical terms have wide currency in phonetic literature and are used to a limited extent here:

i. **Front, High, etc.** Vowels sounded with the tongue pushed forward or drawn back or kept in a midway position are *front*, *back*, or *mixed* vowels. German has only one mixed vowel, the obscure *e*, for which see § 21, 3. The back vowels are *a*, *o*, and *u*; the others, including the modified vowels, are all front. If the tongue, generally with a corresponding motion of the lower jaw, is raised, lowered, or kept at an intermediate position, the resulting vowel is *high*, *low*, or *mid*. German has no low vowel, though *a*, which is a mid vowel in standard speech, is pronounced as a low vowel in parts of the country. The high vowels are *u*, *i*, *y*, and *ü*; the others are all mid vowels. The terms are combined in describing the vowel sounds; thus, German *i* is a high-

front vowel. The tongue can, of course, assume many positions, and the terms defined are therefore only relatively accurate. See also § 14.

2. **Narrow, Wide.** Vowels may also be classified in pairs having the same or nearly the same position of the tongue, one being clear and sharp, the other less so. The *e* of *me* and the *i* of *hit* are such a pair. Usually the tongue is tense and bulges up in forming the clearer, or *narrow*, vowel, and relaxed and flattened for the duller, or *wide*, vowel. The terms "narrow" and "wide" are also applied to pairs of vowels whose difference in quality is due to some other cause. The long vowels are generally narrow, and the short ones wide.

3. **Open, Close.** Vowels formed with a relatively wide or contracted opening of the vocal organs are *open* or *close*, respectively. The terms are indefinite and already sufficiently provided for, but they are widely used and are inserted in parenthesis below for convenience of reference. The long vowels are generally close, and the short ones open.

4. **Rounding.** A vowel uttered with protruded lips is *rounded*. An illustration of moderate rounding is the *oo* of *moon*. The extreme of rounding arises when the lips are puckered as in whistling.

18. **Open and Closed Syllables.** A syllable ending in a vowel is *open*; one ending in a consonant is *closed*. The rules given in § 5 for the division of words into syllables generally make clear when a syllable is open or closed.

19. **Quantity.** Long vowels, with the exception of *a*, not only require more time for their utterance, but they also differ from short ones in quality. This will appear in the later description of the sounds. A "long" vowel may therefore actually be uttered in less time in one word than another without becoming "short." The spelling of a word often shows the quantity of a vowel. The most necessary rules in this connection are the following:

1. A vowel doubled or followed in the same syllable by *h* is long, as in *Staat*, *Heer*, *Zähl*, *ihñ*. This rule does not apply to vowels doubled in the composition, derivation, or inflection of words; see § 10.

2. A vowel is regularly short before two or more con-

sonants, as in *Brand*, *Hilfe*, *nennen*. But a long vowel remains long in the forms of derivation or inflection, as in *lōbst* from *lōben*, *ēdler* from *ēdel*. The doubling of consonants is often only a device to show that the preceding vowel is short. *ȳ*, *ȳȳ*, and *ng* represent single sounds and are, in effect, single consonants. They are never doubled. A vowel before *ȳ* is sometimes long, sometimes short, but regularly short before *ȳȳ* or *ng*. A vowel before *t̄* (= *ff*), *t̄* (= *zz*), or *z̄* (= *ts*) is short. For a vowel before *ȳ* see § 1, 4. Though *ſt̄* is not divided in syllabication, a vowel before it is usually short.

3. In words of more than one syllable a vowel is regularly long in an open accented syllable and short in a closed accented syllable; thus, *lōben*, *Blüme*, but *ȳemden*, *ȳälte*, *ȳinnen*. This is merely an amplification of the preceding rule.

4. In monosyllables a vowel is commonly long before a single consonant or at the end of the word, as in *vor*, *Mal*, *gut*, *du*. It is short, however, in some uninflected monosyllables and in some others that do not form open syllables in the course of inflection, as in *dās*, *in*, *bin*, *ob*. This is a survival of the older usage according to which the vowel of a closed syllable was short. *Tag*, for example, is still pronounced *T̄ag* in parts of Germany, but as the stem-syllable is open and the vowel long in the inflected forms (*T̄age*, *T̄age*, *T̄agen*), the long vowel has now generally prevailed for the whole word.

5. A vowel is usually short in an unaccented syllable, as in *hāndēlt*, *täglīch*, *Frēundin*. A final unaccented vowel (except *e*, for which see § 21, 3) is long, as in *Annā*, *derō*.

6. Some words have their vowel long or short according as they are emphatic or unemphatic. Thus, *dēr* or *d̄ēr*, *dēm* or *d̄ēm*, *dā* or *d̄ā*, *wīr* or *w̄īr*, *ēr* or *ēr̄*; also *hērab'*, *vōran'*, etc., though *hēr*, *vōr*, etc.

SOUNDS OF THE VOWELS

20. *a*, as *a* in *father*. Unlike other vowels, long and short *a* differ only in the time taken in their utterance. Examples are: long, *gaben*, *Stahl*, *Haar*; short, *lann*, *scharf*. Do not make a diphthong of long *a*. Never pronounce German *a* like *a* in *all* or *man*, nor give it an obscure sound when final.

21. *e* has three sounds (close, open, and obscure *e*):

1. Long, like *e* in *they* or *a* in *fate*; as, *lebig*, *mehr*, *weh*. Do not make a diphthong of long *e*. Many Germans pronounce long *e* in certain words like long *a*. A difference of origin was the cause of the difference in sound, but much confusion exists, and it is better for the foreigner always to pronounce long *e* as indicated here.

2. Short, like *e* in *met*; as, *denn*, *felsam*. Be careful never to give it the sound of *e* in *her*.

3. Obscure, much like *e* in *mother* or *a* in *comma*. This sound is heard in unaccented final syllables, in the prefixes *be* and *ge*, and sometimes elsewhere in unaccented syllables and unemphatic monosyllables; as, *hatte*, *Gebirge*, *Hammer*, *Tage8*, *guten*. This is the stage rule. As a matter of fact, most Germans do not give the same sound in all the syllables coming under the rule. In the ending *en*, for example, a mere vocalic *n* is commonly heard, and the pronunciation of final *e* varies in different parts of Germany.

22. *i* has two sounds (close and open *i*):

1. Long, like *i* in *machine* or *e* in *me*. This long sound is represented by *i*, *ih*, or *ie*; as, *dir*, *ihrl*, *liehen*, *vier*. Do not make a diphthong of long *i*.

(a) *ie* is generally pronounced like long *i* in foreign words, but in some such words with the accent on the preceding syllable final *ie* is about like *ye* in *yet*; as, *Familie*, *Eile*. Some other foreign words present other peculiarities.

2. Short, like *i* in *hit*; as, *binde*, *ift*. In South Germany

it is apt to be narrower and to sound to our ears much like long i. Never give to it the sound of i in *sir*.

23. o has two sounds (close and open o):

1. Long, like o in *hold*; as, *Iöben*, *Boot*, *Köhl*. Do not make a diphthong of long o. It is apt to be more rounded in German than in English.

2. Short, as in *Gott*, *soll*. This sound has no equivalent in ordinary English, though it is heard in a common New England pronunciation of *boat*, *coat*, etc. It is wider than the German long o and lies in its rounding between the a of *all* and the o of *hold*. *Gott*, for example, rhymes neither with *not* nor with *note*.

24. u has two sounds (close and open u):

1. Long, like oo in *moon*; as, *Gruß*, *Mut*, *Huhn*. Do not make a diphthong of long u.

2. Short, like oo in *foot*; as, *Brust*, *Futter*.

25. y now appears only in foreign words and in a few proper names. It is ordinarily pronounced like i in the same position. By some it is pronounced like ü in the less usual foreign words.

MODIFIED VOWELS

26. These are really simple vowel sounds for which there are no separate letters. For their origin see § 83. They each have a long and a short (close and open) sound. Do not make a diphthong of the long sound. They are never doubled; hence, *Säle*, *Bärchen*, though *Saal*, *Paar*.

27. ä has two sounds:

1. Long, about like a in *care* or ei in *their*; as, *Kläger*, *Mähne*. Long ä is therefore wider than long e. Many Germans and most English-speaking persons pronounce the two sounds alike, but there is a real, though to our ears slight, difference between them, which should be carefully observed.

2. Short, like *e* in *met*; as, *hätte*, *Bände*. This sound is identical with short *e* (§ 21, 2).

28. ö has two sounds, neither of which is heard in English:

1. Long, as in *mögen*, *Söhne*. Attempt to sound the *a* of *fate* with the lips puckered as in whistling, and the result will be approximately long ö. This is a rounded German long *e*, the rounding being greater than with any English vowel.

2. Short, as in *können*, *öffnen*. Attempt to sound *e* in *met* with the lips puckered as before.

29. ü also has two sounds, neither of which is found in English:

1. Long, as in *über*, *fühn*. Attempt to sound *e* in *me* with the lips puckered as in whistling. Long ü is a rounded German long *i*.

2. Short, as in *füllen*, *Sünde*. Attempt to sound the *i* in *hit* with the lips puckered as before.

NASAL VOWELS

30. These occur in a number of words from the French. In sounding them the breath is allowed to pass through both the nose and the mouth instead of merely through the mouth as with the ordinary vowels. Careful speakers try to pronounce them as in French; thus, *Refrain*, *Entree*, *Salon*, *Vingt-un*. A pronunciation with approximately the same vowel sound followed by the nasal represented by *ng* in *finger* is common in Germany but is not to be recommended.

DIPHTHONGS

31. There are in German three diphthong sounds (spelled, however, in more than three ways) which may be roughly represented by *ai*, *au*, and *oi*. The first element is a full vowel and the second a semi-vowel, both being uttered as one syllable.

32. *ai* (ay) is about like *i* in *mind*; as, *Mai*, *Kaiser*. The spelling ay is now found in a few proper names only.

1. In French words *ai* is pronounced like ä, as in *Palais*.

33. *au* is like *ou* in *house*; as, *Maus*, *Haus*. Be sure to begin with an a sound.

1. In French words *au* and *eau* are like long o; as, *Sauce*, *Plateau*.

34. *äu*, like *eu*, has the sound of *oi* in *oil*; as, *Bäume*, *Häuser*.

35. *ei* (ey), is about like *i* in *mind*; as, *Eis*, *Bein*. The spelling ey is now found only in a few proper names.

36. *eu* is like *oi* in *oil* except that the first element is more rounded than ordinarily in English; as, *Eule*, *Neule*.

1. In French words *eu* is like ö; as, *Abieu*, *Rédacteur*. But *Lieutenant* is pronounced, and often written, *Leutnant*.

37. *øi* (oy) occurs in words from Low German and from foreign languages. It is like *oi* in *oil* in some names and in a few other words; as, *Boi*, *Boisen*. In some Low German names it is like long o; as, *Troisdorf*, *Voigtland*. In French words it is like *wah*; as, *Toilette*, *Boudoir*.

38. The following combinations of vowels, though they are not diphthongs, are mentioned in this connection:

1. *œ* is pronounced like long o in some Low German names; as, *Soest*, *Stehoe*. In words from Greek or Latin both vowels are usually pronounced, as in *Poet*. For œ instead of ö see § 1, 2.

2. *ou* is like German u in words from the French; as, *Tour*, *Ressource*.

3. *öw* is like long o in Low German names and a few foreign words; as, *Bülow*, *Bowle*.

4. *ui* is like *we* in *hui* and *pſui*. Elsewhere it is regularly two distinct vowels, as in *Ruine*. For *gu* and *qu* with vowels see under g, q below.

CONSONANTS

39. Definitions:

1. **Lip, Point, etc.** Consonants formed at or near the lips are *lip* consonants, or *labials*, as *b*, *p*, *f*, *m*. Those formed between the front of the tongue and the upper teeth or gums are *point* consonants, or *dentals*, as *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s*. Those formed between the front of the tongue and the hard palate are *front* consonants, or *palatals*, as *y* in *you*. Those formed between the back of the tongue and the soft palate are *back* consonants, or *gutturals*, as *g*, *k*.

2. **Stops, Liquids, etc.** The *stops*, or *mutes*, are produced by first stopping the breath and then letting it escape with a slight explosion, as *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *k*, *g*. They can not be prolonged, but other consonants, called *continuants* as a class, can be. Thus, if a very narrow opening is left for the passage of the air through the mouth, a *fricative*, or *spirant*, results, as *f*, *s*, *v*, *z*. A wider opening produces a *liquid*, as *l*, *r*. If the lips are closed and the breath escapes through the nose, a *nasal* is formed, as *m*, *n*.

3. **Voiced, Voiceless.** What is known as voice is produced by the action of the vocal chords. All vowels and some of the consonants are *voiced*, while the remaining consonants are breathed, or *voiceless*. The meaning of these terms can be made clear by first sounding the voiceless *s* in *sit* and then the voiced *z* in *zeal*. The effect is increased by stopping the ears with the fingers. Thus, *k*, *t*, *p*, *f*, *s* are voiceless; *g*, *d*, *b*, *v*, *r*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *z* are voiced. The voiced consonants are also called *sonants* and the voiceless *surds*.

4. **Unvoicing.** A voiced stop regularly becomes voiceless at the end of a word alone or in compound, before a suffix beginning with a consonant, and before a voiceless consonant in the same word. Thus, *Rab* is pronounced *Rat*; *abgehen*, *ergeben*; *Mädchen*, *Mättchen*; *gehapt*, *gehapt*.

40. Quantity. German consonants are short. They should not be prolonged as is so often done in English, especially with a final consonant after a short vowel. Even doubled consonants are regularly pronounced as though they were single. But when the doubling arises in the composition or derivation of words, the two consonants are pronounced, sometimes as two separate consonants, but oftener as a single long one. Thus there is a difference between the

sound of doubled t in *Mitte* and *mitteilen*, though it is often not observed in hasty or careless speech.

SOUNDS OF THE CONSONANTS

41. *b* is usually like *b* in *bat*; as, *bauen*, *Liebe*, *Ebbe*, *Diebes*. When final, or before a suffix beginning with a consonant, or before a voiceless consonant (§ 39, 3), it is like *p* in *post*; as, *Dieb*, *Diebs*, *lieblich*.

42. *c* occurs alone in foreign words only. It is regularly pronounced like *ts* before front vowels (§ 17, 1); as, *Docent*, *Cæsar*. Elsewhere it is regularly like *k*; as, *Cato*, *Accord*. It is like *s* in *sit* in some French words; as, *Annonce*. In native words it is found only in *ç*, *d*, and *ʃ*, for which see below.

43. *ç* has two sounds, neither of which occurs in English:

1. It is a voiceless front fricative after front vowels (§ 17, 1), after consonants, and in the suffix *chen*; as, *idç*, *durç*, *Büche*, *leicht*, *Bäumchen*. To make approximately this sound, hold the tip of the tongue firmly against the lower teeth and try to pronounce *sh*.

2. It is a voiceless back fricative after back vowels (a, o, u, and au); as, *aç*, *Buch*, *doch*, *loç*. It is formed between the back of the tongue and the soft palate. It must not be given the sound of *ch* in *chap*, nor of *k* or *h*. The Scotch have it in *loch*. Any attempt to describe it by the aid of English sounds is more misleading than helpful.

3. Foreign words generally follow these rules, though usage is not always consistent. But initial *ç* is like *f* before consonants and back vowels in words from Greek and Latin; as, *Charakter*, *Chronik*. In French words it is like *sh*; as, *Chef*.

44. *çs* is like *ks*; as, *Tuchs*, *Öçse*. But it is *ç* + *s* when *s* is merely added in inflection or derivation; as, *Buchs*, *wachsam*.

45. **t̄**, which merely represents a doubled **t**, is pronounced like **t**; as, *zurück*, *Beden*.

46. **d̄** is usually like *d*; as, *dir*, *Troddel*, *Bäder*, *Todes*. When final, or before a suffix beginning with a consonant, or before a voiceless consonant (§ 39, 3), it is like *t*; as, *Bad*, *Bads*, *Tod*, *Mädchen*.

47. **dt̄** = *t*; as, *Stadt*, *sandte*.

48. **f̄** is like *f* in *full*; as, *Fall*, *laufen*, *hoffen*.

49. **ḡ** varies in different parts of Germany. Only two styles of pronunciation of **ḡ** are considered here, but there are many deviations from these rules.

1. The stage pronunciation, which corresponds pretty closely to the general practice of South Germany:

(a) Usually like *g* in *get*: *Gott*, *legen*, *Tageß*, *Berge*. When final, or before a suffix beginning with a consonant, or before a voiceless consonant (§ 39, 3), it is like **t̄**; as, *Tag*, *Tags*, *täglich*, *Berg*, *legte*, *legt*.

(b) The suffix *ig* has special rules. Its **ḡ** is like *g* in *get* before a vowel: *freudige*, *Könige*, *billiger*. When final or before a voiceless consonant, it is like **ç** in *ich*; as, *Königß*, *freudig*. Before the suffix *lich* it is like **t̄**: *königlich*. If the *i* is dropped, **ḡ** has the sound of a German *j*; as, *sel'ge*, *ew'ge*.

2. The pronunciation of the larger part of North and Middle Germany is as follows:

(a) Initially, whether at the beginning of a word or of a member of a compound, **ḡ** is like *g* in *get*; as, *Gott*, *geben*, *ausgehen*, *begehen*, *vergehen*.

(b) When medial, it has two sounds. After front vowels (*e*, *i*, etc.) and after consonants it is like German *j*; as, *Könige*, *legen*, *Siege*, *Berge*, *segnen*. After back vowels (*a*, *o*, *u*, and *au*) it is the voiced back fricative; as, *Tage*, *flögen*. This sound differs from **ç** in *ach* by being voiced. It is much like an English *y* pronounced well back in the mouth.

(c) When final, it is pronounced as German *ç* in the same position; as, *Berg*, *Zeug*, *König*; *Tag*, *Flug*.

3. The pronunciation of *g* in foreign words, so far as it does not conform to the rules for native words, is a somewhat complicated subject and must be mostly left to the dictionary. In French words *g* before *e* and *ge* before back vowels are like *s* in *pleasure*; as, *Genie*, *Sergeant*. *gh* is like *g* in *get*; as, *Ghetto*. *gn* in most French and Italian words is like *ni* in *union*; as, *Mignon*. *gu* before front vowels is like *g* in *get*; as, *Guerilla*, *Guido*.

50. *h*, when pronounced, is about like English *h*, but it is more forcible and sounds to us clipped off, as it does not die away before the following vowel. It is pronounced at the beginning of a word or of a member of a compound and in the suffixes *haft* and *heit*; as, *hoffen*, *erhoffen*, *wohin*, *aushalten*, *fabelhaft*, *Freiheit*. It is also pronounced, though not initial, in a very few words; as, *aha*, *oho*, *Uhu*, *Ahorn*, *Oheim*, *Iehova*, *Johann*, *Wilhelm*, and two or three others. Elsewhere it is silent. See *ø* and *th* in their alphabetical order.

51. *j* is a voiced fricative about like *y* in *yet*, but it has a distinct buzz, being more tightly squeezed; as, *ja*, *jeder*, *Major*. It is like *s* in *pleasure* in some French words; as, *Journal*.

52. *t* is like *k*; as, *Kugel*, *falt*.

53. *t* is nearly like *l* in *last*; as, *lahm*, *toll*. But the back of the tongue is not raised as in pronouncing English *l*. Our *l* sounds guttural to a German. Do not prolong final *l* after a short vowel.

1. *ll* after another vowel and *ll* after *i* when not initial are about like *lli* in *million* in words from the French; as, *Medaillon*, *Postillion*. Final *ll* in French words is often *l* + *ç* (as in *ich*); as, *Fauteuil*, *Detail*. Or both *ll* and *ç* may be pronounced as now in French.

54. *m* is like *m* in *man*; as, *Mai*, *Name*, *Kommen*. Do not prolong final *m* after a short vowel. For French nasal vowels see § 30.

55. *n* is like *n* in *net*; as, *Nacht*, *nennen*, *an*. Do not prolong final *n* after a short vowel. For French nasal vowels see § 30.

56. *ng* represents a single sound like *ng* in *singer*; as, *Sänger*, *Angel*, *Ding*. Do not prolong final *ng* after a short vowel. If it is due to composition, *ng* is generally *n + g*; as, *angehen*.

57. *nf* is like *nk* in *thank*; as, *Dank*, *lenken*.

58. *p* is like *p* in *put*; as, *Pest*, *Mappe*, *Lump*.

59. *pʃ* = *p + f*; as, *Pferd*, *Apfel*.

60. *pɸ* = *f*; as, *Philosophie*.

61. *q* is always followed by *u*, as in English. *qu* is regularly pronounced like German *kw*; as, *Qual*, *bequem*. In this combination most Germans sound the *w* with both lips; see under *w* below. In some French words *qu* is like *f*; as, *Bouquet*.

62. *r* occurs in any position in the word; as, *Rab*, *Erde*, *Mart*, *mir*. It should not be prolonged when final after a short vowel. It is never silent in approved German pronunciation. There are three common ways of forming it:

1. Front *r*. The tip of the tongue is raised and made to vibrate rapidly. This is the trilled *r* of the German stage, which is also often used by singers and public speakers, as it carries better than the others. It should be more distinctly trilled than is common in English. In ordinary speech this *r* is less common than the following:

2. Back, or uvular, *r*, made in the back of the throat by the vibration of the uvula. If possible, the beginner should learn to use this *r*.

3. Glottal *r*, made by the movement of the vocal chords.

63. *r̥* and *r̥̥* are pronounced as *r*; as, *Rhein*, *Ratarr̥*.

64. *ʃ* varies considerably in different parts of Germany, particularly in the degree of voicing. The following are the stage rules:

1. Initial before a vowel, medial between two vowels, in the suffixes *säl* and *sam*, and between *l*, *m*, *n*, or *r* and a following vowel, *ſ* is like *s* in *has* or *z* in *haze*; as, *ſehen*, *verſehen*, *leſen*, *langſam*, *emſig*, *winſeln*.

2. Elsewhere it is like *s* in *sit*. It therefore has this sound when initial before a consonant, when medial after a consonant except as provided above, when final or doubled, and when in any of these positions in the elements of a compound; as, *Sſlave*, *Erbſe*, *haffen*, *Häuschen*, *böſartig*. For *s̄h*, *ſp*, *ſt*, and *ſ̄*, see below.

65. *s̄h* is like *sh* in *ship*; as, *Schiff*, *Tiſch*. But it is *ſ* + *χ* where *χ* begins a suffix, as in *Häuschen*.

66. *ſp* and *ſt*, when initial, are pronounced *ſhp* and *ſht*; as, *ſpät*, *Stein*, *Weispiel*, *verſtehen*. But when they stand in other positions, the *ſ* is like *s* in *sit*; as, *Geiſt*, *räſpeln*.

67. *ſ̄*, which takes the place of *ſſ* under certain conditions (§ 1, 4), is like *s* in *sit*; as, *Straße*, *muſte*.

68. *t* is like *t* in *top*; as, *Tag*, *bitten*, *rot*. In a number of words from Latin *t* before unaccented *i* is like *ts*; as, *Nation*, *Aſtie*.

69. *t̄h* = *t*; as, *Theater*, *Thron*. See § 8, 5.

70. *t̄*, which represents *þþ*, is pronounced like German *ȝ*; as, *jet̄t*, *Hit̄e*.

71. *v* is like *f* in *full* in native words, in borrowed words now fully Germanized, and always when final; as, *Vetter*, *vier*, *Vers*, *brav*. In other foreign words it is like German *w*, except when final; as, *Novelle*.

72. *w* is about like *v* in *vat*, though not so distinctly buzzed; as, *Waffer*, *Möve*, *Schwester*, *ȝwei*. This is the stage rule, but another *w* is much used in Middle and South Germany. It sounds to us much like English *w* (the lip fricative), but the lips are not so much protruded as in the English sound. This *w* is nearly universal in the combinations *s̄hw*, *ȝw*, *qu*; as, *Schwester*, *ȝwei*, *Quelle*.

73. *g* is like *ks* (English *x* in *box*); as, *Art*, *Herr*, *Xenophon*.

74. *ʒ* and *tʃ* are like *ts* in *mits*; as, *ziehen*, *zu*, *Hölle*.

75. **Foreign Words**, if fully naturalized, follow the rules for German words. If they are still felt as foreign, speakers try to give them their foreign pronunciation. Between these two extremes lie many words whose pronunciation is neither wholly German nor wholly foreign. A number of comments have been made about such words in the foregoing paragraphs. Other details must be left to the dictionary.

ACCENT

76. Only word accent can be considered here, and that only in a brief and elementary way. The important subject of sentence accent does not lie within the scope of such a grammar as this. We may ignore minor variations of word accent and consider only primary (') and secondary (") accent. Unaccented syllables need not concern us.

77. **Simple Words.** Simple native words, with a very few exceptions, and also fully naturalized foreign words have the chief stress on the first syllable, which is also the root-syllable (§ 661); as, *loben*, *Vater*, *Fenster*.

78. **Derivatives.** 1. Words formed with the aid of a native suffix have the chief stress on the first syllable; as, *folgsam*, *Freiheit*, *väterlich*. A very few words have shifted the stress; as, *leben'dig*, instead of *le'bendig*. The suffix ordinarily has the secondary accent, as in *folg'sam'*. Endings of inflection and the suffixes whose vowel is e are unaccented; as, *lobet*, *golden*. But suffixes of foreign origin commonly have the primary accent, even when added to German stems; as, *hausie'ren*, *Bäderet'*. For the distinction made between derivative and compound words in this book see § 689.

2. A prefix may or may not have the chief stress:

(a) The inseparable prefixes *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, and *zer* are unaccented. Hence, *verlie'ren*, *Verlust'*, *bewir'ten*, *Bewir'tung*.

(b) Other prefixes, such as *ant*, *erz*, *miß*, *un*, *ur*, regularly receive the chief stress; as, *Ant'wort*, *Erz'herzog*, *Miß'brauch*, *Un'glück*, *ur'alt*. Some speakers shift the accent with *erz*, mainly in words of reproach, such as *Erzdieb'*. See § 498 for exceptions with *miß*, and § 679, 3 for those with *un*.

79. Compound Words. The accent varies with the part of speech:

1. Compound nouns and adjectives regularly have the chief stress on the first member, with secondary stress on the second and subsequent members; as, *Ap'felbaum*', *gut'-her'zig*. Exceptions are a few nouns and a larger number of adjectives in which the second member of the compound has the chief significance; as, *Jahrhun'dert*, *blutjung'*, *allwiß'-send*. A few other adjectives, especially those with the suffix *lich*, are also excepted; as, *vorzüg'lich*, though *Vor'zug*.

2. For compound verbs see §§ 243, 691.

3. Compound adverbs are in part accented on the first member; as, *viel'mals*. Others, especially those compounded with *her*, *hin*, *da*, or *wo*, are accented on the last member; as, *vielleicht'*, *hinab'*, *herauf'*, *dadurch'*, *womit'*. Sometimes the accent shifts, according as the first or second member becomes the more significant; as, *ein'mal* or *einmal'*, *da'durch* instead of the usual *dadurch'*.

80. Foreign Words, unless fully naturalized, regularly have the chief stress on the last syllable; as, *Metall'*, *Jurist'*. But there are many exceptions.

81. Secondary Accent. This may be allowed to care for itself, after the analogy of English, in native words. Foreign words in which several syllables precede the chief stress commonly have a secondary accent on the first syllable, as in *Ar'tillerie'*.

VOWEL CHANGES

82. For the most part, words are accepted here in the form in which they appear in the modern language and without considering the lin-

guistic changes which they have undergone, but three of these changes are so intimately connected with the inflection of words that they must be explained briefly:

83. Vowel Modification. This change in the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au* was originally caused by a following *i* or *j* (that is, the semi-vowel *i*). The influence of the coming front vowel caused the back vowel to take on an intermediate sound, that is, one with a tongue position nearer to that of *i*. This process was carried out by slow stages in historic times. The modified vowel still remains, though not always written as such, but the *i* (*j*) which caused the change has nearly always weakened to *e* or disappeared after the weakening. Thus, *gäft* and *sconi* have now become *Gäste* and *Schön*. Notice also such English words as *man*, *men*, *mouse*, *mice*. Through the influence of analogy, the desire to make words of the same kind uniform, the modified vowels have been extended to many words which never had an *i* (*j*) to cause the change. The German name for the change is *umlaut*, which is also widely used in English; other names are *metaphony* and *vowel mutation*.

84. Change of *e*. An old *e* was changed to *i* (written *ie*, if long) through the influence of a following *i* (*j*), which later weakened to *e* or disappeared; as, *Berg* and *Gebirge*. This change is especially evident in the second and third person singular indicative of some strong verbs; as, *nimmst*, *nimmt*, *siehst*, *sieht*, from *nehmen* and *sehen*.

85. Vowel Gradation is a variation in the vowel of the root; as, *brechen*, *brach*, *gebrochen*, *Bruch*; *binden*, *band*, *gebunden*, *Band*, *Bund*; *Sitz*, *Sat*. This change occurs in all the Indo-European languages (§ 705), but it is especially characteristic of the Germanic. It was accomplished in prehistoric times and is believed to have been connected with the shifting accent of that period. German words now have a fixed accent, resting regularly on the same syllable through all the processes of inflection and derivation, but this was not the case in the older language. The effects of vowel gradation are now most evident in the strong verbs. The German term for the process is *ablaut*, which is also widely used in English.

INFLECTION

86. English translations are given with the paradigms below only as an aid in identifying the forms. The detailed consideration of the meaning and use of the cases, tenses, and other forms of inflection is

reserved for the Syntax. The term "oblique" is used with reference to any case except the nominative.

87. Inflection does not actually show all the grammatical relations of words. Thus, *der* may be the nominative singular masculine, the genitive or dative feminine singular, or the genitive plural of any gender. Accompanying words generally supply the missing information, however, so that the incompleteness of inflection rarely causes an actual difficulty in the use of the language.

88. Stem. The endings of inflection are added to the stem of a word. This may be the whole word or only a part of it. Thus, the whole of the word *Vater* is the stem, the endings being added to it, while *lob* is the present stem of *loben*. For the term *root* see § 661.

89. Strong, Weak. These terms are applied to nouns, verbs, and declined adjectives. Their use will be made clear in the inflection of these parts of speech.

ARTICLES

90. Declension of the Definite Article:

Singular			Plural	
<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>	
N. <i>der</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>das</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>die</i> <i>the</i>
G. <i>des</i>	<i>der</i>	<i>des</i>	<i>of the</i>	<i>der</i> <i>of the</i>
D. <i>dem</i>	<i>der</i>	<i>dem</i>	<i>to the</i>	<i>den</i> <i>to the</i>
A. <i>den</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>das</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>die</i> <i>the</i>

1. Certain forms of *der* frequently coalesce with a preceding word, mainly with a preposition; *as*, *am*, *ins*, *zur*. See § 260.

2. The long forms *berer* and *benen* of the genitive and dative plural (for which see § 163, 2) lingered on in occasional use till the end of the eighteenth century.

91. Declension of the Indefinite Article:

<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	
N. <i>ein</i>	<i>eine</i>	<i>ein</i>	<i>a</i>
G. <i>eines</i>	<i>einer</i>	<i>eines</i>	<i>of a</i>
D. <i>einem</i>	<i>einer</i>	<i>einem</i>	<i>to a</i>
A. <i>einen</i>	<i>eine</i>	<i>ein</i>	<i>a</i>

1. The abbreviation of *ein* occurs often in the written language and still oftener in the spoken. Thus, '*n* for *ein*, '*nes* for *eines*, '*nen* for *einen*, '*ne* for *eine*. See § 263.
2. The forms *eim* for *einem* and *ein(n)* for *einen* were used in the older literature. They may be still heard in dialect and occasionally in familiar speech.
3. For uninflected *ein* with *paar*, *wenig*, *bischen* see § 424.

NOUNS

92. There are two declensions of nouns in German, the strong and the weak. Strong nouns are divided into three classes, the nominative plural being the basis of classification. The weak declension is not subdivided. Strong masculines and neuters add (*e*)*s* for the genitive singular, while weak masculines add (*e*)*n*. There are no weak neuters. Feminines remain unchanged in the singular. (But see § 121, 1, 2.)

1. A few nouns show a mixture of these two declensions and are treated separately (§ 120), as are also proper names (§§ 125–129) and foreign nouns not fully Germanized (§ 124). For other special irregularities of declension see §§ 121, 122.

93. The following observations will help in the mastery of the declension of nouns:

1. The nominative and accusative singular of all neuters and most masculines are alike. The nominative, genitive, and accusative plural of any noun are always alike. The dative plural always ends in (*e*)*n*.
2. To decline a noun it is usually necessary to know its gender, its nominative and genitive singular, and its nominative plural.
3. Compound nouns regularly have the gender and declension of their last member, the other part of the compound remaining unchanged. Thus, *Apfelbaum* is declined like *Baum*, not like *Apfel*. The exceptions are few; see §§ 273, 692.
4. The definite article is inflected with every noun in the paradigms below. This is, of course, not essential, as the noun has the same inflection with or without the article, but associating the right form of the article with every noun is a great aid to a sure grasp of German gender.

94. Owing to several causes, such as weakening or loss of endings, shifting of words from one class to another, and the like, the inflection of nouns in the modern language seems markedly different from that of Old High German and, to a less degree, of Middle High German. For this reason declension is treated here, for the most part, without reference to its past.

STRONG DECLENSION, CLASS I

95. Nouns of this class add no ending for the nominative plural; but about twenty masculines, the neuter *Kloster*, and the feminines *Mutter* and *Tochter* modify the vowel of the root in the plural. The genitive singular adds only *s*, and the dative plural only *n*. Words ending in *n* do not take an additional *n* in the dative plural.

96. To this class belong masculine and neuter nouns ending in *el*, *en*, and *er*; the masculine *Käse cheese*; only two feminines, *Mutter* and *Tochter*; diminutives in *chen* and *lein*, which are neuter; nouns in *sel*, which are neuter with a very few exceptions; neuters having the prefix *Ge* and the ending *e*. The list could be slightly extended. All nouns of this class are polysyllables except *Sein being* and *Tun doing*, which are both infinitives used as nouns.

1. Infinitives used as nouns are neuter and belong among the nouns ending in *en*. If the infinitive rejects the *e* of this ending, the same peculiarity appears in the noun; as, *Wandern wandering*, *Handeln acting*.

97. Examples:

1. With vowel unchanged in the plural: *Wagen wagon*, *Gemälde painting*, *Mädchen maiden*.

Singular

N.	der Wagen	das Gemälde	das Mädchen
G.	des Wagens	des Gemäldes	des Mädchens
D.	dem Wagen	dem Gemälde	dem Mädchen
A.	den Wagen	das Gemälde	das Mädchen

Plural

N.	die Wagen	die Gemälde	die Mädchen
G.	der Wagen	der Gemälde	der Mädchen
D.	den Wagen	den Gemälden	den Mädchen
A.	die Wagen	die Gemälde	die Mädchen

2. With vowel modification for the plural: *Nagel nail*, *Mutter mother*, *Kloster cloister*.

Singular

N.	der Nagel	die Mutter	das Kloster
G.	des Nagels	der Mutter	des Klosters
D.	dem Nagel	der Mutter	dem Kloster
A.	den Nagel	die Mutter	das Kloster

Plural

N.	die Nägel	die Mütter	die Klöster
G.	der Nägel	der Mütter	der Klöster
D.	den Nägeln	den Müttern	den Klöstern
A.	die Nägel	die Mütter	die Klöster

98. **Masculines modifying the vowel for the plural are:**

Acker field	Hafen harbor	Nagel nail
Apfel apple	Hammel ram	Ofen stove
Boden ground	Hammer hammer	Sattel saddle
Bogen bow	Handel business	Schaden harm
Bruder brother	Laden shop	Schnabel beak
Faden thread	Mangel want	Schwager brother-in-law
Garten garden	Mantel mantle	Vater father
Graben ditch	Nabel navel	Vogel bird

Some of these words may appear without the modified vowel, while some others not in the list have it occasionally.

99. The nucleus of this class was formed by nouns that rejected the ending *e* of the plural, following the tendency of polysyllables in *I*, *n*, and *r* to drop either the *e* preceding or the *e* following these letters. The final *e* in nouns like *Gebirge* is due to phonetic decay. Stragglers from other classes were attracted to the new class. None of its original

nouns was entitled to the modified vowel in the plural on phonetic grounds (§ 83). It came in through the influence of analogy and has spread gradually, so that even some neuters, in addition to *Kloster*, have it occasionally.

STRONG DECLENSION, CLASS II

100. This class adds e, sometimes with and sometimes without modification of the vowel of the root, to make the nominative plural. The genitive singular of masculines and neuters ends in (e)s, and the dative singular frequently in e. The dative plural ends in en.

101. This class is larger than any other. It includes most monosyllabic masculines; all polysyllabic masculines not expressly provided for elsewhere; feminines in *fünft* and about thirty monosyllabic feminines; a number of monosyllabic neuters; all polysyllabic neuters not provided for elsewhere; many masculines and neuters of foreign origin. All nouns in *nis* and *sal* belong here. They are regularly neuter, though a very few are feminine.

i. Nouns ending in *fünft* (pl. *fünfte*) are really compounds, but as the simple *Kunst* *coming* is rare, it is treated as a suffix here. Words in *nis* and some foreign words that end in s double the s before the e of an ending. See the declension of *Gefängnis* below. A doubled vowel is made single if modified for the plural; as, *der Saal hall*, *die Säle*.

102. Examples:

i. With vowel unchanged in the plural: *Monat month*, *Gefängnis prison*, *Schaf sheep*.

Singular

N.	der Monat	das Gefängnis	das Schaf
G.	des Monats	des Gefängnisses	des Schafes
D.	dem Monat	dem Gefängnis	dem Schafe
A.	den Monat	das Gefängnis	das Schaf

Plural

N.	die Monate	die Gefängnisse	die Schafe
G.	der Monate	der Gefängnisse	der Schafe
D.	den Monaten	den Gefängnissen	den Schafen
A.	die Monate	die Gefängnisse	die Schafe

2. With vowel modification for the plural: *Gast guest, Hand hand, Baum tree.*

Singular

N.	der Gast	die Hand	der Baum
G.	des Gastes	der Hand	des Baumes
D.	dem Gäste	der Hand	dem Baume
A.	den Gast	die Hand	den Baum

Plural

N.	die Gäste	die Hände	die Bäume
G.	der Gäste	der Hände	der Bäume
D.	den Gästen	den Händen	den Bäumen
A.	die Gäste	die Hände	die Bäume

(a) The omission or retention of e in the genitive singular depends largely on considerations of taste and euphony. No trustworthy rules can be established. In a general way it may be said that e is quite commonly dropped with polysyllables and kept with monosyllables. Still, many drop it with monosyllables, especially in conversation. Solemn or elevated style naturally prefers the longer forms. The poet is guided by his line. The retention of e is, however, imperative after a sibilant (s, ſt̄, ſ, t̄, z), as in *Gefängnisse*. The use of e with the dative singular depends upon similar considerations, but its omission with all kinds of nouns is more frequent. It is generally dropped when the noun immediately follows a preposition, as in *zu Fuß*, in *Wald und Feld*; but there are many exceptions.

103. All the feminines of this class, with the exception of the few in *nis* and *sal*, modify their vowel for the plural. None of the neuters do so regularly except *Floß float* and *Chor choir*. Masculines present greater complications. Most monosyllables modify their vowel for the plural, and, of course, also the compounds of which they are the last member. Likewise most masculines with prefixes, as *Gesang song*, for example. The words of foreign origin mostly do not modify their vowel for the plural; also some other polysyllables, such as *Monat month*, *A bend evening*, *Habicht hawk*, *Brotam crumb*, etc.

104. Masculine monosyllables of the second class not modifying their vowel for the plural are:

Aal eel	Huf hoof	Schacht shaft
Aar eagle	Hund dog	Schall sound
Arm arm	Kran crane	Schlot flue
Bau building	Lachs salmon	Schluck swallow
Vord edge	Laut sound	Schmuck ornament
Vorn fountain	Luchs lynx	Schuft rascal
Dachs badger	Lump scamp	Schuh shoe
Docht wick	Molch salamander	Spalt split
Dolch dagger	Mond moon	Star starling
Dom cathedral	Mord murder	Stoff stuff
Druck print	Most must	Strauß ostrich
Forst forest	Ort place	Strömling vagabond
Gau district	Pfad path	Tag day
Grad degree	Pfuhl pool	Taft time
Gurt belt	Pol pole	Thron throne
Hag hedge	Puls pulse	Tod death
Hall sound	Punkt point	Tusche flourish
Halm stalk	Rost gridiron	Zoll inch
Hauch breath	Ruf call	

To these may be added a few words like *Amboß anvil*, *Gemahl consort*, *Besuch visit*, *Beruf trial*, *Berlust loss*, etc. Several of the words above may also have a different plural, and some others not in the list are occasionally declined as here. For *Mond* and *Ort* see also § 123.

105. Feminines of this class, except the few in *nis* and *sal*, all with vowel modified for the plural, are:

Angst anxiety	Brunst heat	Frucht fruit
Äxt ax	Brust breast	Gans goose
Bank bench	Faust fist	Grusl vault
Braut bride	Flucht flight	Gunst favor

H and hand	L ust pleasure	S au sow
H aut skin	M ächt might	S chnur string
K luft cleft	M agd maid	S chwulst swelling
K raft strength	M aus mouse	S tadt city
K uh cow	N acht night	W and wall
K unst art	N äht seam	W urst sausage
L aus louse	N ot need	Z ucht breeding
L uft air	N uß nut	Z unft guild

Bank bank is weak. **S**chwulst may also be weak. For **K**unst see § 101, 1.

106. This class is the representative of several older ones with differing vowel endings in the plural. These vowels all weakened later to e. Some of the nouns now included in the class are therefore entitled, for phonetic reasons (§ 83), to the modified vowel in the plural, but it later spread to a number of nouns formerly without it.

STRONG DECLENSION, CLASS III

107. This class adds er for the nominative plural and ern for the dative plural. The vowel of the root is modified in the plural whenever possible, except that nouns in tum modify only the u of this suffix. The genitive singular ends in (e)s and the dative singular frequently in e. The singular is therefore the same as in the second class, and remarks made in § 102, a, with reference to the retention or rejection of e in the genitive and dative singular, apply here also.

108. This class contains about sixty monosyllabic neuters; a few neuters with the prefix Ge; about a dozen masculines; all nouns in tum, of which two are masculine, the others neuter; a few foreign nouns. It includes no feminines.

109. Examples: Blatt leaf, Mann man, Fürstentum principality.

Singular

N. das Blatt	der Mann	das Fürstentum
G. des Blattes	des Mannes	des Fürstentums
D. dem Blatte	dem Manne	dem Fürstentum
A. das Blatt	den Mann	das Fürstentum

Plural

N.	die Blätter	die Männer	die Fürstentümer
G.	der Blätter	der Männer	der Fürstentümer
D.	den Blättern	den Männern	den Fürstentümern
A.	die Blätter	die Männer	die Fürstentümer

110. The masculines belonging here are:

Bösewicht	villain	Mann	man	Strauß	bouquet
Geist	spirit	Ort	place	Vormund	guardian
Gott	God	Rand	edge	Wald	forest
Irrtum	error	Reichtum	riches	Wurm	worm
Leib	body	Strauch	bush		

Several of these words may have a different plural. For Mann and Ort see also § 123. For compounds with Mann as the last member see § 121, 7.

111. The monosyllabic neuters belonging here are:

Ans	carcass	Gras	grass	Mal	mark
Amt	office	Gut	property	Maul	mouth
Bad	bath	Haupt	head	Neft	nest
Band	ribbon	Haus	house	Pfand	pledge
Bild	picture	Holz	wood	Rad	wheel
Blatt	leaf	Horn	horn	Reiß	twig
Brett	board	Huhn	fowl	Rind	cattle
Buch	book	Joch	yoke	Scheit	billet
Dach	roof	Kalb	calf	Schild	sign
Ding	thing	Kind	child	Schloß	castle
Dorf	village	Kleid	dress	Schwert	sword
Ei	egg	Korn	grain	Stift	foundation
Fach	compartment	Kraut	herb	Tal	valley
Fäss	cask	Lamm	lamb	Tuch	cloth
Feld	field	Land	land	Volk	people
Geld	money	Licht	light	Wams	waistcoat
Glas	glass	Lied	song	Weib	woman
Glied	member	Loch	hole	Wort	word
Grab	grave	Mahl	meal		

Some of these words may also have a different plural. For Band, Ding, Land, Licht, Tuch, and Wort see also § 123.

112. Polysyllabic neuters of this class, in addition to those in tum, are few. Those with the prefix Ge are Gemach room, Gemütt

spirit, Gesicht genus, sex, Gesicht face, Gespenst ghost, Gewand garment, and a few others whose more common plural is *e*. Plurals in *e* also occur with some of this list. For *Gesicht* see also § 123. The foreign neuters regularly belonging here are *Hospital* or *Spital hospital* and *Regiment regiment*, but a few others occasionally have a plural in *er*.

113. The nucleus of this class was made up of a small number of nouns with *ir* in the plural. This *ir* weakened to *er*, but the modified vowel of the root due to it remained. Other nouns were later attracted to the class and assumed the modified vowel in the plural. For the occasional dropping of the endings of the nominative and accusative plural see § 121, 3.

WEAK DECLENSION

114. Weak nouns add (*e*)*n* for all the cases of the plural; weak masculines add this ending also for the oblique cases of the singular. The vowel of the root is never modified for the plural.

115. The declension is restricted to masculine and feminine nouns. It includes polysyllabic masculines ending in *e*, except *Käse* (§ 96); about thirty other masculines, mostly monosyllabic, which have dropped their final *e* in the nominative singular; many foreign masculines accented on the last syllable; some names of nationality in *at* and *er*, also masculine; polysyllabic feminines, except the few expressly provided for elsewhere; monosyllabic feminines, except those in the second class of strong nouns (§ 105). This is pre-eminently the declension for feminine nouns, though it includes a considerable number of masculines.

116. Examples: *Knabe boy, Zeit time, Blume flower, Schwester sister.*

Singular

N.	der Knabe	die Zeit	die Blume	die Schwester
G.	des Knaben	der Zeit	der Blume	der Schwester
D.	dem Knaben	der Zeit	der Blume	der Schwester
A.	den Knaben	die Zeit	die Blume	die Schwester

Plural

N.	die Knaben	die Zeiten	die Blumen	die Schwestern
G.	der Knaben	der Zeiten	der Blumen	der Schwestern
D.	den Knaben	den Zeiten	den Blumen	den Schwestern
A.	die Knaben	die Zeiten	die Blumen	die Schwestern

1. Feminines in el and er are declined like *Schwester*. Feminines in in double the n in the plural. Thus, *Königin queen*, pl. *Königinnen*. Masculines ending in e are declined like *Knabe*. Weak monosyllabic masculines and other weak masculines not ending in e in the nominative singular add en for all the other cases, singular and plural. Thus, *Mensch man* and *Student student* have *Menschen* and *Studenten* for the genitive singular and all the remaining cases. *Herr gentleman* is an exception. It is commonly declined with n in the oblique cases of the singular and en in the whole plural. Thus, *der Herr, des Herrn, die Herren*.

117. *Masculines formerly ending in e which belong here are:*

Bär bear	Hagestolz bachelor	Prinz prince
Bursch(e) fellow	Held hero	Schenk cupbearer
Christ Christian	Herr gentleman	Schrantz toady
Fink(e) finch	Hirt(e) shepherd	Schultheiß magistrate
Fürst prince	Mensch man	Spatz sparrow
Ged dandy	Mohr Moor	Steinmeier mason
Genoss companion	Narr fool	Tor fool
Gesell(e) companion	Ochs (Ochse) ox	Truchseß steward
Graf count	Pfau peacock	

1. As indicated by the marks of parenthesis above, some of these words retain the e in the nominative singular not infrequently, and others may do so occasionally. Some of them may also be declined strong. On the other hand, some monosyllables now pretty uniformly strong are still occasionally weak. Further confusion is caused by words which have both strong and weak forms in common use. Such variations merely serve to show that the declension of German nouns is still in a state of transition. In colloquial German many words drop the final e which appear with it in the dictionaries; as, *Pfaff parson*, *Zub Jew*, *Bub boy*.

2. For the titles *Fürst*, *Graf*, *Prinz* without inflection before proper names see §§ 295–300.

118. Names of nationalities in *at* and *er* belonging here are: *Bulgar Bulgarian*, *Magyar Magyar*, *Ungar Hungarian*, *Baier Bavarian*, *Pommer Pommeranian*, and a few others. Most names of nationalities in *er* are, however, declined according to the first class of the strong declension; as, *Amerikaner American*, *Engländer Englishman*, *Spanier Spaniard*. Those in *e* are, of course, weak; as, *Fränzöse Frenchman*, *Preuze Prussian*, *Russe Russian*. For *deutsch German*, see § 321, 2 a.

119. The vowels in the endings of the different classes of the old weak declension finally weakened to *e* and thus left *en* as the sole ending of the declension. There was nothing to cause vowel modification in the plural. The few old weak neuters have disappeared from the modern declension. The masculines have had some gains and greater losses, the latter mostly from two causes. Thus, a noun might drop the final *e* of its nominative singular and enter the second class of the strong declension, or add *n* to its nominative singular and enter the first class, as illustrated by *herzoge duke* and *garte garden*, which have become *Herzog* and *Garten*. The feminines have had some losses and greater gains.

MIXED DECLENSION

120. This is not really a separate declension but a mixture of strong and weak forms in the inflection of some masculine and neuter nouns. These nouns may be grouped as follows:

i. Some native and some fully Germanized foreign nouns which are strong in the singular and weak in the plural. Thus, *Staat* runs: N. *Staat*, G. *Staates*, D. *Staate*, A. *Staat*, pl. (for all cases) *Staaten*. These nouns are:

MASCULINES

<i>Bauer peasant</i>	<i>Nachbar neighbor</i>	<i>Strahl ray</i>
<i>Dorn thorn</i>	<i>Schmerz pain</i>	<i>Untertan subject</i>
<i>Gevatter godfather</i>	<i>See lake</i>	<i>Vetter cousin</i>
<i>Lorbeer laurel</i>	<i>Sporn spur</i>	<i>Vorfahr ancestor</i>
<i>Mast mast</i>	<i>Staat state</i>	<i>Zierrat ornament</i>
<i>Muskel muscle</i>	<i>Stachel sting</i>	<i>Zins interest</i>

NEUTERS

<i>Auge eye</i>	<i>Ende end</i>	<i>Ohr ear</i>
<i>Bett bed</i>	<i>Hemd shirt</i>	<i>Weh pain</i>

(a) Several of these words may be declined differently. The list might be lengthened by the addition of some nouns which are now usually declined otherwise, such as the masculines *Stiefel boot* and *Pantoffel slipper*. *Bauer*, meaning *builder*, is strong. *Sporn* commonly has the plural *Sporen* instead of *Spornen*.

2. A number of less fully Germanized nouns, all with a strong singular and a weak plural. Thus, masc. *Psalm psalm*, *Professor professor*; neut. *Insekt insect*, *Statut statute*. Some of these words offer special peculiarities. Thus, nouns in unaccented or shift their accent in the plural; as, *Profeßor*, pl. *Professo'ren*. Those in accented or, as *Major'*, do not belong here at all. Several neutrals in al and il add ien for the plural; as, *Mineral*, *Fossil*, pl. *Mineralien*, *Fossilién*. Neutrals ending in um change this syllable to en; as, *Individuum individual*, *Studium study*, pl. *Individuen*, *Studien*. Some of the neutrals in um may have a longer and a shorter form in the singular, with the plural as before; thus, *Verb(um)*, *Adverb(ium)*, pl. *Verben*, *Adverbien*.

3. Several masculine nouns may have their nominative singular with or without (e)n, but belong otherwise to the first class of the strong declension. With the exception of *Schaben*, they do not modify their stem vowel in the plural. Thus, N. *Namen* or *Name*, G. *Namen\$*, with *Namen* elsewhere in the singular and throughout the plural. These masculines are:

<i>Fels(en)</i>	<i>cliff</i>	<i>Glaube(n)</i>	<i>belief</i>	<i>Same(n)</i>	<i>seed</i>
<i>Friede(n)</i>	<i>peace</i>	<i>Haufe(n)</i>	<i>heap</i>	<i>Schade(n)</i>	<i>harm</i>
<i>Funke(n)</i>	<i>spark</i>	<i>Name(n)</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>Wille(n)</i>	<i>will</i>
<i>Gedanke(n)</i>	<i>thought</i>				

(a) The longer form nearly always occurs with *Schaben* and is perhaps the commoner with *Frieden* and *Haufen*, though not with the others. *Name* may even be shortened to *Nam* colloquially. A similar shortening is less frequent with some of the others. *Fels* is now really weak and *Felsen* strong, but as the two are often confused in declension, they are included here. *Schmerz* (§ 120, 1) and *Buchstabe letter*, which is regularly weak, are sometimes declined like *Name*, except that their nominative singular cannot end in (e)n. Most of the words here were formerly weak and have not yet passed wholly over to the first class of the strong declension.

(b) The neuter *Herz heart* is declined: N. *Herz*, G. *Herzens\$*, D. *Herzen*, A. *Herz*, pl. *Herzen*.

IRREGULAR DECLENSION

121. The statements above cover the ground for the regular inflection of the present day. Special irregularities of individual nouns which have changed their declension in the course of their history and thus show occasional variant forms must be mostly left to the dictionary, but the following more general irregularities are worthy of notice:

1. **Feminines declined in the Singular.** Some of the feminine nouns were formerly declined in the singular. The influence of those not so declined has now prevailed for all, but there are occasional survivals of the older usage, mostly in set phrases or in compounds; as, *auf Erben* *on earth*, *zu Gunsten* *in favor of*, *behende* *nimble* (*hende* being the old dative singular of *Hant*).

2. **Feminines with Genitive Singular in §.** Nouns like *Mutter mother*, *Tante aunt*, *Majestät majesty*, which become, in effect, proper names, may form a genitive in §, if they stand, without preceding article or pronominal, before another noun; as, *Mutters Tränen* *mother's tears*. Some other feminines occasionally have the same construction.

3. **Neuters not declined in the Plural.** The absence of an ending in the nominative and accusative plural was characteristic of old strong neuters. There are occasional survivals of the old usage in poetry; as, *meine Kind* for *meine Kinder*. It also survives with nouns of quantity after numerals. See § 276.

4. **Plurals in §.** Apparently through Low German influence, plurals in §, for all cases, occur often in familiar speech and in books imitating it; thus, *Mädchen* *girls*, *Bräutigam* *bridegrooms*, *Kerl* *fellows*.

5. **Dropping of § in Genitive Singular.** There is some tendency, especially in familiar speech, to drop the § of the genitive, if the noun is preceded by an article or a pronominal adjective. This practice is not considered good usage with common nouns. For the regular dropping of § with some kinds of proper names see §§ 291-293.

6. **Defective Declension.** Some nouns which have no plural or of which the plural is uncommon use a compound or some other device as their plural; thus, *der Betrug* *fraud*, *die Betrügereien*; *der Rat* *advice*, *die Ratschläge*; *das Glück* *luck*, *die Glücksfälle*.

7. **Plural of Compounds with Mann.** Compounds with *Mann* as their last member have a plural in *männer* and another in *Leute* (*people*). The latter is the common plural; as, *Ebelute* *nobility*, *Eheleute* *married people*, *Bergleute* *miners*. But if the idea of sex enters as a factor, or if individuals rather than some of a class are meant, or if especial

dignity is implied, the plural is *-männer*. Thus, *Ehemänner married men, Staatsmänner statesmen*.

8. **Omission of Declension.** Titles before proper names (§§ 295–300) and all but the last noun of a series (§ 279) may be without declension.

122. Declension of Other Parts of Speech used as Nouns. The genitive singular may take *s*, the rest of the singular being like the nominative; the plural may end in *s* or *e* or *en*. On the other hand, there may be no inflection in either singular or plural, the case being indicated by an article or pronominal. Usage is still very unsettled.

DIFFERENT PLURALS WITH DIFFERENT MEANINGS

123. The number of nouns with variant plurals is considerable, though the list of those so used in ordinary speech is much shorter than the occurrence of different forms in literature, especially in poetry, seems to indicate. Some of these words have already been mentioned; most of the others must be left to the dictionary. For variation caused by difference of gender see § 274, 2. Ordinarily one of the forms eventually drives out the other. Sometimes they develop difference of meaning and both survive. The following are frequently occurring double plurals of this type:

das Band	Bänder ribbons	Bande bands
die Bank	Bänke benches	Banken banks
der Bauer	Bauern peasants	Bauer builders
das Ding	Dinge things	Dinger, see (a) below
das Gesicht	Gesichter faces	Gesichte apparitions
das Horn	Hörner horns	Horne kinds of horn
der Laden	Läden shutters	Lüden shops
das Land	Länder lands	Lande political divisions
das Licht	Lichter lights	Lichte candles
der Mann	Männer men	Mannen vassals
der Mond	Monde moons	Monden months
der Ort	Orte places	Örter places (= towns)
das Tuch	Tücher pieces of cloth	Tüche kinds of cloth
das Wort	Wörter words	Worte words (in discourse)

(a) *Dinger* is often used pityingly, disparagingly, or humorously of people, about like *creatures*. The distinction in the plurals of *Ort* is

perhaps questionable, and the differences indicated for some of the other words are not always observed.

DECLENSION OF FOREIGN NOUNS

124. Borrowed nouns that have become fully naturalized follow the regular declensions of native nouns. Less completely Germanized words have been considered in § 120, 2. The declension of nouns that are felt as still more foreign is a very complicated topic, as usage is fluctuating and uncertain. It must therefore be left to the dictionary, for the most part, but the following comments may be helpful.

1. Borrowed nouns that remain in use tend to approach nearer to a regular German declension. We may therefore find two, or more, recognized forms for one word; as, *der Atlas*, *die Atlanten* or *Atlasse*; *das Drama*, *die Dramas* or *Dramen*. A word may have its singular strong and all its plural in §; as, *der Papa*, *des Papas*, *die Papas*. Or the genitive singular may be shown merely by the ending of the accompanying article or pronominal, especially if the noun ends in §. The complete foreign inflection is possible, particularly in learned works, but the practice is growing less frequent. A number of words, however, retain their foreign nominative for the whole plural; as, *Fafta facts*, *Cherubim cherubim*. But some of these may also have a German plural.

DECLENSION OF PROPER NAMES

125. Singular of Names of Persons. If declined at all, such names regularly add § for the genitive, the other cases remaining unchanged. This rule applies to both baptismal and family names. Examples:

N.	Wilhelm	Anna	Bismarck
G.	Wilhelms	Annas	Bismarcks
D.	Wilhelm	Anna	Bismarck
A.	Wilhelm	Anna	Bismarck

1. Names ending in a sibilant now often indicate the genitive by adding an apostrophe; as, *Mag'*, *Wöß'*. But the older usage of adding *ens* is still common, especially with baptismal names; as, *Marens*.

2. Feminine names ending in *e* commonly add *s* for the genitive, but they may add (*e*)*ns*; as, *Maries* or *Mariens*. Notice also *Annas* or *Annens*, and a few others with the same variation.

3. If two or more names pertain to the same person, the genitive ending is added to the last; as, *Friedrich Wilhelms*, *Georg Schmidts*.

(a) If *von* indicates nobility, the ending of the genitive should be added to the name following it, according to the rule as commonly given; thus, *Heinrich von Kleists Werke* (*works*), *die Werke Heinrich von Kleists*. But if *von* indicates merely the place of birth or residence, the genitive ending should be added to the preceding name; as, *Hoffmanns von Fallersleben Gedichte* (*poems*), *die Gedichte Hoffmanns von Fallersleben*. This rule is often violated.

4. The ending of the genitive is now regularly dropped if the name is preceded by an article or equivalent modifier. See § 291.

5. Though now old-fashioned, datives and accusatives in (*e*)*n* were formerly quite common; as, *Wilhelmen*, *Lotten*, *Kreislern*. They are survivals of an old weak declension of names of persons. Even now a weak genitive in *en* occurs occasionally.

6. *Iesu Christus* is commonly declined: G. *Iesu Christi*, D. *Iesu Christo*, A. *Iesum Christum*. Other biblical names frequently retain their Latin inflection, especially in the genitive. Latin or Greek inflection for other names has now about died out.

126. Plural of Names of Persons. The plural may be shown by the article or other modifier, the name itself remaining unchanged. Much oftener there is some kind of inflection, whether the article or other modifier is present or not. The usual colloquial ending for both baptismal and family names is *s* (not infrequently *ens* after a sibilant) for the whole plural; *e* (dative *en*) is also very common with masculine or family names, especially in more dignified style. The endings *ne* and *nen* are less frequent. Illustrations are:

Tellheims, Annas, Heinriche, Mathilden, Ottone or Ottonen. Modification of the vowel is not the rule but may occur colloquially, sometimes humorously; as, Erdmänner, Hähne. Foreign names are commonly not inflected for the plural, but they may follow German models.

1. The distinction often urged that die Salzmanns, for example, are people of the name of Salzmann and die Salzmann are people like Salzmann seems dubious.
2. Common nouns indicating office and the like often become, in effect, proper names and take a plural in s; as, die Pfarrers *the pastor's family*, Kaisers *the imperial family*.

127. Names of Countries. If declined, these add s for the genitive, the other cases remaining unchanged; as, N. England, G. Englands, D. England, A. England. The s of the genitive is now regularly dropped if an article or other modifier precedes. See § 292.

1. The plural is rare and is regularly indicated by the article or other modifier without declension of the name. But die Niederlande *the Netherlands* is a real plural, its other cases being der Niederlande, den Niederlanden, die Niederlande.

2. Masculine and feminine names of countries are much less frequent than neuter and are always preceded by the article or other modifier. The feminines add no endings of declension; the masculines regularly add s for the genitive but may remain uninflected.

128. Names of Towns and Cities. These are neuter and, if declined, add s for the genitive singular, the other cases being unchanged; as, N. Berlin, G. Berlins, D. Berlin, A. Berlin. The s of the genitive is now regularly dropped if the article or other modifier precedes. See § 292.

1. If the name ends in a sibilant, the genitive is indicated by von or by inserting Stadt, Dorf, or the like; as, die Einwohner (*inhabitants*) von Paris, or die Einwohner der Stadt Paris. The genitive ending enß with such names is now obsolete.

2. Names of towns and cities are occasionally feminine in poetical language. They are then preceded by the article and are not declined. Der Haag *the Hague* is masculine and takes s for its genitive.

129. Other Proper Names. Here are included names of rivers, mountains, lakes, ships, newspapers, etc. They may be of any gender and are preceded by the article or other modifier. They are declined like common nouns. Those whose genitive ending is regularly *s* often appear without it. See § 293.

ADJECTIVES

130. Descriptive adjectives and participles used as adjectives are subject to declension in the same way. They only are considered in the following discussion.

131. Adjectives, unlike nouns, do not have a fixed declension, but if declined are declined weak, strong, or mixed, according to circumstances. The rules for the use of these declensions are given in the Syntax.

132. The endings are as follows:

	Strong			Weak		
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N.	<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>
er	e	es		e	e	en
G.	en (eß)	er	en (eß)	er	en	en
D.	em	er	em	en	en	en
A.	en	e	eß	e	en	en

For the two endings in the strong genitive singular masculine and neuter see § 133, 2.

1. These endings are added to the stem, but stems in *e* keep only one *e* in declined forms; as, *träger*, not *trägeer*, from *träge* *idle*. Compound adjectives have only their last number declined. Thus, *fürzlebig short-lived* adds the endings to *lebig* only. *Hoch high* drops *c* in inflected forms, such as *höher*, *der hohe*, etc.

2. Adjectives in *el* and *er* (including comparatives) may either reject the *e* of these syllables before all endings or drop the *e* of the endings *en* and *em*; as, *eble*, *edler*, *edles*, *edlen* or *edeln*, *heitre*, *heitler*, *heitrem* or *heiterm*, etc., from *edel* *noble* and *heiter* *cheerful*. The rejection of the first *e* is now the commoner practice, except possibly with the ending *en*. The uncontracted forms, *eble*, *heitler*, etc., also occur frequently, especially in stately diction. Adjectives in *en* often drop the *e* of this syllable in inflected forms; as, *ebne*, *ebnem*, etc., from *eben* *even*. The

uncontracted forms are also very common. Other contractions, such as *silbern* (*silver*) for *silbernen*, *eisern* (*iron*) for *eisernem*, are rare. (For a similar use of *n* for *n'n* or *nen* see §§ 154, 2, 260, 2.)

STRONG DECLENSION

133. The adjective has strong inflection when not preceded by an article or a declined pronominal. Examples: *klein little*, inflected with *Baum tree*, *Stadt city*, and *Haus house*.

Singular

N. <i>kleiner Baum</i>	<i>kleine Stadt</i>	<i>kleines Haus</i>
G. <i>kleinen Baumes</i>	<i>kleiner Stadt</i>	<i>kleinen Hauses</i>
D. <i>kleinem Baume</i>	<i>kleiner Stadt</i>	<i>kleinem Hause</i>
A. <i>kleinen Baum</i>	<i>kleine Stadt</i>	<i>kleines Haus</i>

Plural

N. <i>kleine Bäume</i>	<i>kleine Städte</i>	<i>kleine Häuser</i>
G. <i>kleiner Bäume</i>	<i>kleiner Städte</i>	<i>kleiner Häuser</i>
D. <i>kleinen Bäumen</i>	<i>kleinen Städten</i>	<i>kleinen Häusern</i>
A. <i>kleine Bäume</i>	<i>kleine Städte</i>	<i>kleine Häuser</i>

1. The strong adjective may occur with a noun or, as a substantive, without a noun. For the omission of the *e* of stem or ending with adjectives in *el*, *er*, and *en*, see § 132, 2. The *e* of an ending is occasionally dropped after other stems; as, *liebß Kind dear child*. For the dropping of endings, especially *es* of the nominative and accusative singular neuter, see § 320.

2. The ending of the genitive singular, masculine and neuter, was formerly *es*. It may still occur in a few set expressions (as, *gutes Mutß of good cheer*), and the rules require its use if the adjective is substantive or if the noun takes its genitive in *(e)n*. As a matter of fact, the genitive of a strong substantive adjective or of a weak noun not preceded by an article or declined pronominal is infrequent,

and *eß* has therefore been almost entirely superseded by *en*. (See also § 294.) The ending *en* also occurs infrequently in the dative singular, masculine and neuter, instead of *em*, but this substitution, unlike the preceding one, is not considered good usage.

WEAK DECLENSION

134. The adjective has weak inflection when preceded by the definite article or by a pronominal declined strong. Examples: *jung young*, inflected with *Mann man*, *Frau woman*, *Pferd horse*.

Singular

N. der junge Mann	die junge Frau	das junge Pferd
G. des jungen Mannes	der jungen Frau	des jungen Pferdes
D. dem jungen Manne	der jungen Frau	dem jungen Pferde
A. den jungen Mann	die junge Frau	das junge Pferd

Plural

N. die jungen Männer	die jungen Frauen	die jungen Pferde
G. der jungen Männer	der jungen Frauen	der jungen Pferde
D. den jungen Männern	den jungen Frauen	den jungen Pferden
A. die jungen Männer	die jungen Frauen	die jungen Pferde

1. The declension of weak adjectives is the same whether they are used substantively or stand before a noun. For the omission of *e* of stem or ending with adjectives in *el*, *er*, and *en* see § 132, 2. For the pronominals which, when declined strong, are followed by the weak adjective see § 309.

MIXED DECLENSION

135. This is not really a separate declension but merely a mixture of strong and weak forms. It occurs after *ein* and after pronominals declined like *ein*. The adjective has the strong ending where these words have none, and is weak

elsewhere. Examples: *mein my* and *neu new*, inflected with *Hut hat*, *Gabel fork*, *Schwert sword*.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
N.	mein neuer Hut	meine neuen Hütte
G.	meines neuen Hutes	meiner neuen Hütte
D.	meinem neuen Hute	meinen neuen Hütten
A.	meinen neuen Hut	meine neuen Hütte
N.	meine neue Gabel	meine neuen Gabeln
G.	meiner neuen Gabel	meiner neuen Gabeln
D.	meiner neuen Gabel	meinen neuen Gabeln
A.	meine neue Gabel	meine neuen Gabeln
N.	mein neues Schwert	meine neuen Schwerter
G.	meines neuen Schwertes	meiner neuen Schwerter
D.	meinem neuen Schwerte	meinen neuen Schwertern
A.	mein neues Schwert	meine neuen Schwerter

1. The declension of mixed adjectives is the same whether they are used substantively or stand before a noun. For the omission of e of stem or ending with adjectives in el, en, and er see § 132, 2. For the pronominals declined like ein see § 310.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

136. The comparative is formed by adding er, and the superlative by adding (e)st, to the stem of the positive. A number of monosyllabic adjectives whose vowel is a, o, or u (but not au) modify the vowel in the comparative and superlative (§ 139).

1. Adjectives in e reject the e of the comparative and superlative endings.

2. Those ending in el and er commonly drop the e of these syllables in the comparative. Those in en may do so, but are perhaps more disposed to keep the full form.

3. The superlative regularly takes only *st*. Stems ending in *d*, *t*, or a sibilant regularly add *est*, but if the adjective is of more than one syllable and is not accented on the last syllable, only *st* is added. Present participles therefore regularly take *st* and the past participle of weak verbs commonly *est*.

137. The following adjectives illustrate the rules given above:

<i>klein small</i>	<i>kleiner</i>	<i>kleinst</i>
<i>angenehm pleasant</i>	<i>angenehmer</i>	<i>angenehmst</i>
<i>jung young</i>	<i>jünger</i>	<i>jüngst</i>
<i>müde tired</i>	<i>müder</i>	<i>müdest</i>
<i>edel noble</i>	<i>edler</i>	<i>edelst</i>
<i>alt old</i>	<i>älter</i>	<i>ältest</i>
<i>gelehrt learned</i>	<i>gelehrter</i>	<i>gelehrtest</i>
<i>reizend charming</i>	<i>reizender</i>	<i>reizendst</i>

138. Irregular Comparison. The following adjectives are compared irregularly; the sign — indicates a missing form:

<i>gut good</i>	<i>besser</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>viel much</i>	<i>mehr</i>	<i>meist</i>
<i>hoch high</i>	<i>höher</i>	<i>höchst</i>
<i>groß great</i>	<i>größer</i>	<i>gröbst</i>
—	<i>minder less</i>	<i>mindest</i>
—	<i>äußer outer</i>	<i>äußerst</i>
—	<i>hinter hinder</i>	<i>hinterst</i>
—	<i>inner inner</i>	<i>innerst</i>
—	<i>nieder lower</i>	<i>niederst</i>
—	<i>ober upper</i>	<i>oberst</i>
—	<i>vorder fore</i>	<i>vorderst</i>
—	—	<i>erst first</i>
—	—	<i>letzt last</i>

1. *Gut* and *viel* actually have no comparative and superlative, but use as such other words which have no positive. The words from *äußer* to *vorder* inclusive are derived from prepositional or adverbial stems. From *mehr* comes the double comparative *mehrere several*, and the infrequent superlative *mehrlest*. *Erst* and *letzt* are now felt as positives and form the comparatives *erster former* and *letzter latter*.

139. Monosyllables with modified vowel in the comparative and superlative:

alt <i>old</i>	groß <i>great</i>	lang <i>long</i>
arg <i>bad</i>	hart <i>hard</i>	nah(e) <i>near</i>
arm <i>poor</i>	hoch <i>high</i>	naß <i>wet</i>
bang <i>anxious</i>	jung <i>young</i>	rot <i>red</i>
blan ^k <i>bright</i>	kalt <i>cold</i>	scharf <i>sharp</i>
blaß <i>pale</i>	karg <i>stingy</i>	schmal <i>narrow</i>
dummi <i>stupid</i>	klug <i>wise</i>	schwach <i>weak</i>
fromm <i>pious</i>	knapp <i>close</i>	schwarz <i>black</i>
gesund <i>healthy</i>	krank <i>ill</i>	stark <i>strong</i>
glatt <i>smooth</i>	krumm <i>crooked</i>	warm <i>warm</i>
grob <i>coarse</i>	turz <i>short</i>	

Some of these also occur unmodified, with varying frequency. The list of these fluctuating words could be easily increased. A number of words, including a few polysyllables, had a modified vowel in the classical period but never take it now. Modification is commoner in the spoken language than in the written, but is decreasing in both.

i. Old High German had two endings for the comparative, ir and or, and for the superlative, ist and oft. These endings have all weakened their vowel to e, but the modified vowel caused by ir and ist (§ 83) remains, in part.

140. Compound Adjectives add the endings of comparison regularly to their last member. Thus, bö^sartig *bad*, bö^sartiger, bö^sartigst. But the first member may be compared if it is an adverb and the meaning of the compound so requires. Thus, weitsehend *far-seeing*, weitersehend, am weitesten sehend (§ 254) or weitestsehend. Usage is not thoroughly established here.

DECLEMNION OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

141. Comparatives and superlatives are declined like positives, the endings of declension being added to er and (e)st. Thus, from alt *old* come:

Strong Comparative

m. f. n.

Weak Comparative

m. f. n.

N. älterer	ältere	älteres	der ältere	die ältere	das ältere
G. älteren	älterer	älteren	des älteren	des älteren	

Weak Superlative

<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>
N. der älteste	die älteste	das älteste
G. des ältesten	der ältesten	des ältesten

The other cases of the singular and plural can be supplied after the manner of those just given. The comparatives may elide *e* after the manner of adjectives ending in *er* (§ 132, 2). The strong superlative (*ältester*, *älteste*, *ältestes*, etc.) is of rare occurrence. See §§ 330, 331 for further comments about the declension of comparatives and superlatives.

COMPARISON WITH *mehr* AND *am meisten*

142. Very rarely difference of degree is shown by putting before the positive *mehr* for the comparative and *am meisten* for the superlative. Thus, *alt, mehr alt, am meisten alt*. The adjective follows the usual rules for declension. For the circumstances under which this infrequent method of comparison may be used see § 336.

DESCENDING COMPARISON

143. The so-called descending comparison (that is, the expression of a less and the least degree of what is denoted by the adjective) is made by putting before the positive *weniger*, or *minder*, for the comparative and *am wenigsten*, or *am mindesten*, for the superlative. Thus, *alt, weniger (or minder) alt less old, am wenigsten (or am mindesten) alt least old*. See § 337.

NUMERALS

144. The numerals are considered separately, as they differ in some important respects from other pronominal adjectives and, when used as nouns, from other nouns.

CARDINALS

145. The most important cardinals, from which the others up to a million can be formed, are:

1 ein	12 zwölf	40 vierzig
2 zwei	13 dreizehn	50 fünzig
3 drei	14 vierzehn	60 sechzig
4 vier	15 fünfzehn	70 siebenzig
5 fünf	16 sechzehn	80 achtzig
6 sechs	17 siebzehn	90 neunzig
7 sieben	18 achtzehn	100 hundert
8 acht	19 neunzehn	102 hundert(und)zwei
9 neun	20 zwanzig	200 zweihundert
10 zehn	21 einundzwanzig	1000 tausend
11 elf	30 dreißig	2000 zweitausend

1. *Fünf, fünfzehn, funfzig, siebenzehn, and siebenzig* also occur. *Eiß*, for *elf*, is obsolete; also *zehn*, for *zehn*.

2. The odd numbers between 20 and 100 are formed by putting the unit before the ten, as in *einundzwanzig* above. Thus: *zweiunddreißig, neunundneunzig*. Higher numbers not formed from combinations of those in the list just given, such as *Million million* and *Milliarde a thousand millions*, are feminine nouns of foreign origin. For *a hundred* and *a thousand* the German regularly has only *hundert* and *tausend*, but for *one hundred* and *one thousand* (that is, where *ein* is actually felt as a numeral) it has *ein Hundert* and *ein Tausend*. *Eine*, whether meaning *a* or *one*, is always used with the singular of *Million*, *Milliarde*, etc. Numbers are read much as in English. Thus, 5163 is read *fünftausend einhundert dreitausend sechzig*, and the date 1749 commonly *siebenhundert neunundvierzig*, or occasionally *tausend siebenhundert neunundvierzig*.

Declension of Cardinals

146. *Gin* has a threefold inflection:

1. Standing before a noun (and not itself preceded by the definite article or a pronominal adjective), it is declined as when used as the indefinite article. See § 91.

2. Standing alone, it is declined with the strong forms, like the singular of *dieser*. See § 164. *Gins*, for *eines*, is very common in the nominative and accusative singular neuter.

3. After the definite article or a pronominal with full inflection, commonly *dieser*, *ein* is declined like a weak adjective and may then have a plural. Thus, N. *der eine*, *die eine*, *das eine*; G. *des einen*, *der einen*, *des einen*; pl. *die einen*. It occasionally occurs after the possessives *mein*, *dein*, etc., and is then declined like an adjective in the same position (§ 135). Thus, *mein einer Sohn*.

4. Under certain conditions *ein* is not declined at all. See § 340.

147. All the cardinals from 2 to 99 inclusive are regularly undeclined in all positions. The genitive is shown by *von* if accompanying words do not make the case clear.

1. *Zwei* and *drei* are occasionally declined as follows:

N.	<i>zwei</i>	<i>drei</i>
G.	<i>zweier</i>	<i>dreier</i>
D.	<i>zweien</i>	<i>dreien</i>
A.	<i>zwei</i>	<i>drei</i>

But after the definite article or a pronominal the genitive is *zweien*, *dreien*, if the numeral is declined at all; thus, *der zweien*, or generally, of course, *der zwei*. The old distinction of gender for *zwei*, represented by the nominatives, *m.* *zween*, *f.* *zwo*, *n.* *zwei*, with declension after the analogy of that above, is now antiquated. Like the cardinals from *vier* on, *zwei* and *drei* may have as nominative and accusative *zweie*, *dreie*.

2. When the noun is absent, the numerals from 4 to 9 inclusive sometimes have a nominative and accusative in *e* (*viere*, *fünfe*, etc.), a genitive in *er*, *or*, if preceded by the definite article or a pronominal adjective, in *en* (*bierer*, *der vierer*, etc.), and a dative in *en* (*bieren*, *fünfen*). They may also have a genitive in *e* after the definite article or a pronominal (*der viere*, *fünfe*, etc.). But such forms are old-fashioned except in a few stereotyped phrases.

148. *Hundert* and *tausend* are regularly undeclined when standing before a noun; as, *hundert Häuser*. As substantives they are regularly treated as strong neuters, with a plural in *e* (§ 102), and begin with a capital; as, *bei Hunderten und Tausenden, Tausende von Menschen*. But declension before a noun sometimes occurs, as well as lack of declension else-

where. *Million*, *Milliarde*, etc., are weak feminine nouns and are always declined in the plural; as, *drei Millionen*, *fünf Milliarden*.

The Cardinals and their Derivatives as Actual Nouns

149. All the cardinals are used as weak feminine nouns, with a plural in *en*, as names of the figures, in giving the value of cards, and in some other relations. Thus, *die erste* *Zwei* *the first (figure) two*.

1. They also form a masculine in *er*, declined according to the first class of strong nouns (§ 97). These words have various meanings; thus, *Einer*, *Behner*, *units*, *tens*; *Schäfer*, name of a coin; *ein Achtziger* *a man of eighty*.

(a) *Zwanziger*, *dreißiger*, etc., are also used as indeclinable adjectives; as, *in den achtziger Jahren* *in the eighties*.

ORDINALS

150. The ordinals are formed by adding *t* to the cardinals up to 20, and *st* from 20 on. Thus, *zweit second*, *siebent seventh*, *bierzehnt fourteenth*, *zwanzigst twentieth*, *einundzwanzigst twenty-first*, *sechzigst sixtieth*, *hundertst hundredth*, *hundertundfünft hundred and fifth*, *tausendst thousandth*. The only exceptions are *erst first*, from a different stem, and *dritt third* and *acht eighth*, which are slightly irregular. The old word for *second* was *ander other*, which is still occasionally used as a numeral; *zweit* is a comparatively modern formation.

151. Declension of Ordinals. The ordinals are adjectives. They are always preceded by an article or pronominal adjective and are declined like any other adjective in the same position. In such ordinals as *einundzwanzigst*, *hundertunderst*, etc., the endings of declension are added to the last member (*zwanzigst*, *erst*, etc.). A period indicates contraction; as, *den 3.* (for *dritten*) *September*.

OTHER NUMERALS

152. Several numeral expressions, such as *das Dutzend dozen*, *das Paar pair*, *die Mandel fifteen*, etc., are nouns and are declined accord-

ingly. A few words, such as *viel much*, *wenig little*, *all all*, etc., will be considered in connection with the indefinite pronouns (§ 175-193). In addition to these, there are words derived from the cardinals and ordinals, which, so far as they can be grouped in classes, are given in the following:

1. **Multiplicatives.** These add *fach* or *fältig* to the cardinal; as, *einfach* or *einfältig simple*, *dreifach* or *dreifältig threefold*. They are adjectives and are declined after the manner of other adjectives.

2. **Variatives.** These add *erlei* to the cardinal and are indeclinable; as, *einerlei of one sort* or *kind*, *zweierlei*, *dreierlei*. For *-erlei* see § 677, 4.

3. **Iteratives.** These add *mal time* to the cardinal; as, *einmal once*, *zweimal twice*, *dreimal three times*. They are adverbs as thus written. *Mal* is actually a neuter noun and may appear as such; as, *ein anderes Mal another time*.

4. **Fractionals.** These add *tel* to the ordinal, beginning with *dritt*, but drop one *t*; as, *Drittel third*, *Viertel fourth*, *Achtel eighth*, *Zwanzigstel twentieth*. They are neuter nouns, declined after the manner of strong nouns of the first class (§ 97), *tel* being merely a weakened form of *Teil part*; see § 673, 12. But *half* is *halb* (adjective) or *Hälfte* (feminine noun); see § 344, 1.

5. **Dimidiatives.** These add *halb*, commonly with inserted *e*, to the ordinal; as, *dritt(e)halb two and a half*, *viert(e)halb three and a half*. But *one and a half* is *anderthalb* (see § 150), not *zweithalb*. They are generally indeclinable, but may be inflected strong when used substantively.

6. **Ordinal Adverbs.** These add *ens* to the ordinal; as, *erstens firstly*, *zweitens secondly*.

7. **Compounds with *selb*.** Compounds of *selb self* and an ordinal now sound quaint, though they were not so uncommon in earlier periods; as, *selbamer* or *selbzweit with one other*, *selbdrift with two others*. The ordinal is regularly declined in accordance with the construction. These compounds may occur with the cardinal instead of the ordinal.

8. **Distributives.** The adverb *je* gives a distributive sense to numerals; as, *je der zehnte Bürger every tenth citizen*; *zwölf Lieferungen zu je zwölf Bogen twelve parts of twelve sheets each*.

PRONOUNS

153. Under this heading the declension of the pronouns proper and the pronominal adjectives is included. It is not profitable to separate

these two classes of words, as some of the pronominals (*dieser*, for example) are used freely as substantives or adjectives without change of declension.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

154. The personal pronouns are *ich I*, *du thou, you, er,* *sie, es he, she, it.* They are declined as follows:

<i>First Person</i>		<i>Second Person</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
N. <i>ich</i>	<i>wir</i>	<i>du</i>	<i>ihr</i>
G. <i>meiner (mein)</i>	<i>unser</i>	<i>deiner (dein)</i>	<i>euer</i>
D. <i>mir</i>	<i>uns</i>	<i>dir</i>	<i>euch</i>
A. <i>mic<i>h</i></i>	<i>uns</i>	<i>dich</i>	<i>euch</i>

Third Person

<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N. <i>er</i>	<i>sie</i>	<i>es</i>	<i>sie</i>
G. <i>seiner (sein)</i>	<i>ihrer</i>	<i>seiner (sein)</i>	<i>ihrer</i>
D. <i>ihm</i>	<i>ihr</i>	<i>ihm</i>	<i>ihnen</i>
A. <i>ihn</i>	<i>sie</i>	<i>es</i>	<i>sie</i>

Also *Sie you*: N. *Sie*, G. *Ihrer*, D. *Ihnen*, A. *Sie*. This is the third person plural *sie*, written with a capital and used for the second person. For the meaning and use of the second and third personal pronouns see §§ 353–356.

1. The short forms of the genitive singular, *mein, dein, sein*, are the older, but they seldom appear in modern prose. A short form *ihr* for the genitive singular feminine and for the genitive plural of the third personal pronoun is not given in the paradigm, as it is now obsolete. The long forms *unf(e)rter* and *eu(e)rter* of the genitive plural are also omitted, though they may be heard colloquially and appear sometimes in literature. The grammarians generally reject them.

2. The contraction '*s*' for *es* is frequent, even in the most formal usage. Other shortened forms of the third personal pronoun may be heard colloquially; as, '*m*' for *ihm*, '*n*' for *ihn*, *Ihn'n* (written also *Ihnn* or *Ihn*) for *Ihnen*.

3. An old genitive *es*, now replaced by *sein(er)*, is still found in a few constructions. See § 441, 2.

4. For *Sie*, formed after the manner of *deo* (163, 2 b) and used sometimes in very formal address, see § 353, 4.

REFLEXIVES

155. *Sich* is the only exclusively reflexive pronoun in German. It is used as the third personal reflexive, singular and plural, dative and accusative, and means *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*, and (referring to *Sie you*) *yourself*, *yourselves*. The genitive has the same form as the personal pronoun. The whole third personal reflexive therefore runs:

<i>Singular</i>		
<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>
G. <i>seiner (sein)</i>	<i>ihrer</i>	<i>seiner (sein)</i>
D. <i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>
A. <i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>

<i>Plural, all genders</i>	<i>Plural for Sie you</i>
G. <i>ihrer</i>	<i>Sie</i> <i>reer</i>
D. <i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>
A. <i>sich</i>	<i>sich</i>

1. In the older language *sich* was only accusative, and the datives *ihm*, *ihr*, *ihnen* still occur occasionally instead of *sich*; as, *sie sahen etwas zu suchen im Grase vor ihr* *she seemed to be looking for something in the grass before her*. The genitive *sein* was originally reflexive only, but it was used very early as the genitive singular, masculine and neuter, of the third personal pronoun. See § 154, 3.

2. There is no separate reflexive for the first and second persons, but the oblique cases of the first and second personal pronouns are used reflexively. For examples see §§ 248, 249.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

156. Possessive adjectives correspond to the personal pronouns as follows:

<i>Pers. Pron.</i>	<i>Poss. Adj.</i>	<i>Pers. Pron.</i>	<i>Poss. Adj.</i>
ich	mein <i>my</i>	wir	unser <i>our</i>
du	dein <i>thy, your</i>	ihr	euer <i>your</i>
er	sein } <i>his, her, its</i>	sie	ihr <i>their</i>
sie		Sie	Ihr <i>your</i>
es	sein }		

157. Declension. Standing before a noun or a substantive adjective, these words are declined like the indefinite article in the singular and with the usual strong endings in the plural. The forms of *mein* and *unser*, for example, are:

Singular

<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>
N. mein	meine	mein	unser	unsere	unser
G. meines	meiner	meines	unseres	unserer	unseres
D. meinem	meiner	meinem	unserem	unserer	unserem
A. meinen	meine	mein	unseren	unsere	unser

Plural

<i>m. f. n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N. meine	unsere
G. meiner	unserer
D. meinen	unseren
A. meine	unsere

1. *Unser* and *euer* generally drop the *e* of their last syllable or of the endings *es*, *em*, and *en*; as, *unsre*, *eure*; *unsres*, *unseres*, *eures*, *euers*, etc. For *seim* instead of *seinem*, etc., cf. § 91, 2.

2. The possessive adjectives are sometimes preceded by *dieser*, *jener*, or *all*. They are then commonly declined as above, but may be treated like an ordinary adjective in the same position.

3. With the possessive adjectives are formed compounds, such as *deinetwegen*, *unserthalben*, *ihresgleichen*, *meinerseits*, some of which present irregularities. Details must be left to the dictionary.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

158. German has three forms for the possessive not followed by a noun or a substantive adjective. Thus, corresponding to the adjective *mein*, we find *meiner*, *der meine*, and *der meinige*. The whole list is as follows, the nominative singular masculine being given for each word:

<i>meiner</i>	<i>der meine</i>	<i>der meinige mine,</i>
<i>deiner</i>	<i>der deine</i>	<i>der deinige thine, yours</i>
<i>seiner</i>	<i>der seine</i>	<i>der seinige his, its</i>
<i>unserer</i>	<i>der unsere</i>	<i>der uns(e)ige ours</i>
<i>euerer</i>	<i>der euere</i>	<i>der eu(e)ige yours</i>
<i>ihrer</i>	<i>der ihre</i>	<i>der ihrige hers, theirs</i>
<i>Ihrer</i>	<i>der Ihre</i>	<i>der Ihlige yours</i>

1. The long forms, *der unſerige* and *der euerige*, are rare, *der unſrige* and *der eurige* being in regular use.

159. Declension:

1. The words in the first column above, *meiner*, *deiner*, etc., are declined, like *dieser* (§ 164), with the strong endings. Thus, N. *meiner*, *meine*, *meines*, G. *meines*, *meiner*, *meines*, D. *meinem*, *meiner*, *meinem*, A. *meinen*, *meine*, *meines*, and so on, after the manner of *dieser*. *Unserer* and *euerer* commonly drop the e of stem or ending. See §§ 132, 2, 157; 1. *Meins*, *deins*, *feins*, instead of the full form of the nominative and accusative singular neuter, are colloquial.

2. The last element of the possessive pronouns in the second and third columns above is an adjective and is declined weak. Thus:

N. <i>der meine</i>	<i>die meine</i>	<i>das meine</i>
G. <i>des meinen</i>	<i>der meinen</i>	<i>des meinen</i>
	or	
N. <i>der meinige</i>	<i>die meinige</i>	<i>das meinige</i>
G. <i>des meinigen</i>	<i>der meinigen</i>	<i>des meinigen</i>

The remaining cases can be supplied readily. Der unsere and der euere often drop the e of stem or ending. See §§ 132, 2, 157, 1.

160. In Predicate. There is actually the possibility of any one of four forms of the possessive in predicate; for example, mein (invariable), meiner, der meine, der meinige (the last three inflected for gender and number). See § 374. Another invariable form, meine, deine, etc., is found in older literature but is now obsolete.

161. Comparison. The comparison of a possessive is of rare occurrence. Examples are: nun ist das Meine meiner als jemals *now what is mine is more mine than ever*; der Deinigste, at the end of a letter.

DEMONSTRATIVES

162. The demonstratives are der, dieser, jener, selber, selbst, derselbe, derjenige, and solcher.

163. Declension of der this, that.

1. As an Adjective. Der standing before a noun has the same declension as the definite article (§ 90). The article is, in fact, the same word, differing from the demonstrative adjective only in the degree of emphasis (§ 377).

(a) Owing to its greater force, the demonstrative adjective does not suffer the contraction with prepositions which is so common with the article. The lengthened forms of the genitive and dative (see below) are now obsolete in their adjective use.

2. As a Pronoun. The declension of the pronoun der differs from that of the same word as article or adjective with a noun in the regular use of certain longer forms, as follows:

	<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
	<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N. der	die		das	die
G. dessen (des)	deren (der)		desse(n) (des)	deren or derer (der)
D. dem	der		dem	denen (den)
A. den	die		das	die

(a) For the distinction between *deren* and *derer* of the genitive plural see § 380. The old short forms, given in parenthesis above, are now infrequent, having been driven out by the newer lengthened forms. See § 379. *Des* was formerly written *des*. A feminine genitive singular *berer*, not given above, is also in occasional use. The form *baß*, when contrasted with *dieß*, occurs after prepositions governing the dative. For *desenthalben*, *desentwegen*, etc., cf. § 157, 3.

(b) For *dero* in very formal address see § 353, 4. *Dero* is the Old High German genitive plural, whose final *o* weakened to *e* and then disappeared.

164. Declension of *dieser* *this* and *jener* *that*. These words are declined alike and have the same inflection with or without a noun. They have the strong endings throughout, as shown by the declension of *dieser*.

	<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
	<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N. dieser	diese		dieseß	diese
G. dieses	dieser		dieseß	dieser
D. diesem	dieser		diesem	diesen
A. diesen	diese		dieseß	diese

1. *Dieß* (older spelling *dieß*) is frequently used for *dieseß* in the nominative and accusative singular neuter. It also occurs, when contrasted with *baß*, after prepositions governing the dative. The genitive singular masculine and neuter of both *dieser* and *jener* ends very rarely in *en* instead of *es*. See § 133, 2.

165. *Selber* and *selbst*, both meaning *self*, are indeclinable. For their use see § 363. *Derselbe* comes from the same stem.

166. Declension of *derselbe* and *derjenige*. These words are both combinations of the definite article and an adjective, and are declined accordingly. For the meaning of *derselbe* see § 382, and of *derjenige* § 383. The declension of *derselbe* illustrates the declension of both words.

	<i>Singular</i>			<i>Plural</i>
	<i>m.</i>	<i>f.</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>m. f. n.</i>
N.	<i>derselbe</i>	<i>dieselbe</i>	<i>dasselbe</i>	<i>dieselben</i>
G.	<i>desselben</i>	<i>derselben</i>	<i>desselben</i>	<i>derselben</i>
D.	<i>demselben</i>	<i>derselben</i>	<i>demselben</i>	<i>denselben</i>
A.	<i>denselben</i>	<i>dieselbe</i>	<i>dasselbe</i>	<i>dieselben</i>

1. A strengthened form *ebenderselbe* also occurs occasionally. Notice the not infrequent contraction of the article with a preposition; as, *im selben*, *zur selben*, etc. *Selb*, without *der* and declined as a strong adjective, occurs infrequently. *Dieser* occasionally takes the place of *der* with both words; as, *dieserselbe*, *dieserjenige*.

2. From the stem *selb* come also *derselfige* (declined like *derselbe*) and *selbiger* (declined like *dieser*). Both are now obsolete. The short form *derjene* (declined like *derjenige*) is also obsolete. It and *derjenige* are both from the same stem as *jener*.

167. Declension of *solcher* such.

1. Standing alone or before a noun it is declined like *dieser* (§ 164). Occasionally it then has, in colloquial style, the weak ending *en* instead of *eß* in the genitive singular, masculine and neuter. See § 133, 2.

2. Following *ein* or *fein* it is declined like an adjective in the same position (§ 135). Thus, N. *ein solcher*, *eine solche*, *ein solches*, G. *eines solchen*, *einer solchen*, *eines solchen*.

3. Before *ein* it is undeclined. Thus, N. *solch ein*, *solch eine*, *solch ein*, G. *solch eines*, *solch einer*, *solch eines*. It may also be invariable before an adjective, which is then declined strong; see § 308, 1. For *so* with *ein* and *fein*, instead of *solcher*, see § 385.

INTERROGATIVES

168. The interrogatives are *wer*, *was*, *welcher*, *was für ein(er)*. The first two are pronouns; the other two may be either adjectives or pronouns.

169. Declension of *wer who* and *was what*. Both these words have no plural and no separate forms for the different genders.

N.	<i>wer</i>	<i>was</i>
G.	<i>wessen (wes)</i>	<i>wessen (wes)</i>
D.	<i>wem</i>	(no dative)
A.	<i>wen</i>	<i>was</i>

1. The short form *wes* (older spelling *wefß*) is now infrequent except in *weswegen* and *weshalb*. *Was* is often used after prepositions governing the dative. It frequently stands for *um was*, or *warum, why*. A feminine dative *wer* is exceedingly rare. *Wem* occurs now and then as the dative of *was*.

170. Declension of *welcher which, what*. *Welcher* is regularly inflected like *dieser* (§ 164). It sometimes drops the ending *eß* of the nominative and accusative singular neuter. Before a strong noun its genitive singular occasionally takes *en* instead of *eß*. See § 133, 2. It is not declined before *ein* and commonly not before an adjective, which is then inflected strong. See *söldner*, § 167, 3. *Welcher* cannot follow *ein*.

171. Declension of *was für ein(er) what sort or kind of*. *Was für* remains invariable, and *was* may be separated from *für* by intervening words in colloquial style. The declension of *ein(er)* is determined by the construction.

1. As an Adjective. Here *ein* is declined like the indefinite article. Thus, N. *was für ein*, *was für eine*, *was für ein*, G. *was für eines*, *was für einer*, *was für eines*. Before a noun in the plural *ein* is, of course, dropped, *was* remains invariable,

and the noun carries the inflection. *Ein* is sometimes dropped in the singular also. See § 397.

2. As a Pronoun. Here *einer* is declined with the strong endings, like *dieser* (§ 164). Thus, N. *was für einer*, *was für eine*, *was für eines* (or *eins*), G. *was für eines*, *was für einer*, *was für eines*. The phrase has no plural.

(a) *Welcher* is sometimes used colloquially with *was für* instead of *einer* and with the same meaning. *Was für welcher* does occur in the plural.

RELATIVES

172. German, like English, has no separate relative pronoun, but employs words which have other meanings and uses in this office. The words now regularly employed as relatives are the demonstrative *der* and the interrogatives *welcher*, *wer*, and *was*. A few other words which are now infrequently used as relatives are discussed in § 414.

173. *Der* and *welcher*. These are the relatives in most frequent use. Both mean *who*, *which*, *that*.

1. Declension of *der*. In its relative use *der* is declined as when a demonstrative (§ 163, 2) except that the genitive plural *derer* is rare. The short forms *des*, *der*, etc., do not occur in ordinary prose.

2. Declension of *welcher*. Though *welcher* can be either relative adjective or pronoun, its adjective use is much the less frequent. It is declined as when interrogative (§ 170) except that the forms of the genitive, both singular and plural, are infrequent in its use as a relative pronoun. The genitives of *der* (sing. *dessen*, *deren*, *desse*n, pl. *deren*) are regularly substituted for them.

174. *Wer* and *was* are indefinite relatives, declined as when interrogative (§ 169). *Wer* means *whoever*, *he who*, and *was* *whatever*, *what that which*.

INDEFINITES

175. It is customary and convenient to include under this heading words that might be divided into several different classes. Some of them are exclusively pronouns; the others are both pronouns and adjectives.

176. **All** *all*, if declined, is nearly always strong like *dieser* (§ 164). Before *der* or a possessive adjective it is often not declined or, in familiar speech, appears merely in the form *alle*. After the definite article, and occasionally elsewhere, it is weak.

177. **Ander** *other* is inflected like an ordinary adjective.

178. **Beid** *both* is inflected like an ordinary adjective. It appears most often in the plural, but the neuter singular is not uncommon.

179. **Einer** *one* is the numeral used as a pronoun. See § 146, 2.

180. **Ein wenig**, **ein bisschen**, both meaning *a little*, and **ein paar** *a few* are indeclinable.

181. **Einig** and **etlich** *some* are declined like ordinary adjectives.

182. **Etwas** (or **was**) *something* and **nichts** *nothing* are indeclinable neuters. They are used as nominatives and accusatives and with prepositions.

183. **Jeder** *each, every* is declined strong like *dieser* (§ 164). It substitutes *en* for *es* in the genitive singular comparatively often. See § 133, 2. The plural is now infrequent. If *jeder* is preceded by *ein*, it is declined like an adjective in the same position (§ 135).

184. **Jeglicher** and **jedweder** *each, every* are declined like *jeder*.

185. **Jedermann** *everybody* is always singular. It adds **s** for the genitive, the other cases being unchanged.

186. **Jemand** *somebody* and **niemand** *nobody* are always singular. They add **s** for the genitive, the other cases

remaining unchanged. Occasionally they have a fuller declension:

N.	jemand	niemand
G.	jemand(e)s	niemand(e)s
D.	jemandem, jemanden	niemandem, niemanden
A.	jemanden	niemanden

187. **Kein** *no, not any, feiner none, no one.* **Kein** is an adjective and is declined in the same way as the possessive adjectives (§ 157), having its singular like *ein* and its plural strong. **Keiner** is a pronoun, declined strong like *dieser* (§ 164). For **keim** cf. § 91, 2. **Keins** is a common contraction for **feines** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter.

188. **Man** *one, they, you* is an indeclinable pronoun used only in the nominative singular.

189. **Mancher** *many (a)* is treated like **solcher** (§ 167) when standing alone or before a noun, or after or before *ein*. It may also remain invariable, as **manch**, before an adjective, which is then declined strong (§ 308, 1). After the plural of the definite article it is weak.

190. **Mehr** *more* is indeclinable. **Mehrere** *several* is declined like a strong adjective in the plural.

191. **Viel** *much*, pl. *many*, if inflected, is declined like an ordinary adjective.

192. **Wenig** *little*, pl. *few*, if inflected, is declined like an ordinary adjective.

193. **Wer** and **welcher** have the same declension as when interrogatives (§§ 169, 170). As an indefinite, **wer** means *somebody* and **welcher** *some*.

OTHER PRONOMINALS

194. For lack of a better place, several compound indeclinable words are brought together here. The list might be somewhat lengthened by the addition of less usual words.

i. **Allerhand, allerlei** *all kinds (of), all sorts (of)* are old genitives used as adjectives and very rarely as substantives.

2. **Desgleichen** (sing.), **dergleichen** (sing. or pl.) *such like* are genitives in origin and are used as relative or demonstrative pronouns or adjectives.
3. **Meinesgleichen**, **deinesgleichen**, etc., *my kind*, *your kind*, etc., are genitives in origin. Variant forms are **meinetgleichen**, **deinetgleichen**, etc. cf. § 187, 3.
4. **Derlei** *of that* or *such a kind* is also a genitive used as a demonstrative adjective or pronoun. See § 677, 4.
5. **Unsereins** *one of us*, *one like us* is often not declined. Perhaps oftener we find **unsereiner** or **unsereins** inflected for case in the last element, which is the substantive numeral **einer** or **ein(e)s**.

VERBS

195. Some general statements are made below before passing to the actual conjugation of the verbs. The weakening of endings and other processes of leveling have brought about so many changes that it is best to treat the modern verb, except in a few particulars, without reference to its past.

196. Endings:

	<i>Indicative and Subjunctive</i>		<i>Imperative</i>	
	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
First Person	e	en		
Second Person	est	et	e	et
Third Person	et, e	en		

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
en	end	(e)t (weak) en (strong)

1. The ending **et** of the third person singular occurs only in the present indicative. The vowels of the old endings all finally weakened to **e**, but changes due to an old **i** of some endings are found in the stem vowel of the present indicative, imperative, and past subjunctive of some strong verbs. See §§ 220-222, 83, 84.

197. Dropping of e. In poetry the **e** of an ending is dropped or kept as the meter requires. Formal, stately prose is disposed to retain it and familiar speech to drop it. The ordinary prose usage, lying between these two extremes, is as follows:

1. The ending **e** is often dropped in the present indicative (as, **ich komm'**) and less frequently in the past indicative. It is regularly kept in the subjunctive. For the imperative see the paradigms.

2. The *e* of *est* and *et* is commonly dropped in the indicative and kept in the subjunctive. For exceptions when the stem of the verb ends in a sibilant, in *d* or *t*, in *m* or *n* preceded by any consonant except *l* or *r*, see §§ 212, 213, 227, 228.

3. If the stem ends in *el* or *er*, the *e* of these syllables or of the inflectional ending is regularly dropped under certain conditions. For details see § 214.

4. If the stem ends in a vowel or *h*, the verb may drop the *e* of *en*, especially in familiar speech; as, *streun*, *wir gehn*, *gefehn*.

198. Forms with Sie. Though *Sie* now means *you*, it is grammatically only the plural of the third personal pronoun and governs the verb accordingly. It is given in the conjugation of *haben* below to show its relations, but is omitted from the other paradigms except in the imperative.

199. Ge with the Past Participle. The syllable *ge* is regularly prefixed to the past participle of both strong and weak verbs. Exceptions are:

1. Verbs in *eien* and *ieren* and also a few other verbs of foreign origin. Thus, the past participles of *prophezeien*, *studieren*, *posaunen*, and *rumoren* are *prophegeit*, *studiert*, *posaunt*, and *rumort*.

2. Verbs with the inseparable prefixes (§ 240); as, *vergangen*, not *gevergangen* or *vergegangen*, from *vergehen*.

3. In the conjugation of the passive *worden*, not *geworden*, is used. In poetry other past participles without *ge* occur occasionally; as, *fannnt* for *gefannnt*, *fommen* for *gefommen*. These are survivals from the period when *ge* was not necessarily prefixed to the past participle.

200. Principal Parts. If the infinitive, past tense, and past participle are known, most verbs can be conjugated according to rule. The present stem is found by dropping the infinitive ending. The past tense and past participle of weak verbs, with a few exceptions, are formed on this stem. Strong verbs follow different rules for these parts.

201. Simple and Compound Tenses. Only the present and past are simple tenses, that is, tenses formed by changes in the stem or by additions to it. All the other tenses are compound, being formed by the aid of the auxiliaries *haben* or *sein*, and *werden*, as will be seen in the paradigms below. For the occasional use of *tun* as an auxiliary see § 514, r.

202. Past Future and Past Future Perfect. These tenses are often called the present and perfect conditional respectively. As the modern language has lost all consciousness of the origin of these forms, the corresponding forms of the indicative having disappeared, it seems, on

the whole, best to call them the past future and past future perfect subjunctive, though neither these names nor present and perfect conditional are entirely satisfactory. For a summary of the uses of these tenses see § 552.

CONJUGATION OF *haben*, *sein*, AND *werden*

203. Owing to their use as auxiliaries, the conjugation of *haben*, *sein*, and *werden* is given in full before the consideration of weak and strong verbs. None of the three is entirely normal in its inflection.

204. Conjugation of *haben*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *haben*, *hatte*, *gehört*

Indicative	Subjunctive
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Present

ich habe <i>I have</i>	ich habe <i>I may have</i>
du hast <i>thou hast, you have</i>	du habest <i>thou mayest have</i>
er hat <i>he has</i>	er habe <i>he may have</i>
wir haben <i>we have</i>	wir haben <i>we may have</i>
ihr habt <i>you (ye) have</i>	ihr habet <i>you (ye) may have</i>
sie (<i>Sie</i>) haben <i>they (you) have</i>	sie (<i>Sie</i>) haben <i>they (you) may have</i>

Past

ich hatte <i>I had</i>	ich hätte <i>I might have</i>
du hattest <i>thou hadst</i>	du hättest <i>thou mightest have</i>
er hatte <i>he had</i>	er hätte <i>he might have</i>
wir hatten <i>we had</i>	wir hätten <i>we might have</i>
ihr hattet <i>you had</i>	ihr hättest <i>you might have</i>
sie hatten <i>they had</i>	sie hätten <i>they might have</i>

Present Perfect

ich habe gehabt <i>I have had</i>	ich habe gehabt <i>I may have had</i>
du hast gehabt <i>thou hast had</i>	du habest gehabt <i>thou mayest have had</i>
er hat gehabt <i>he has had</i>	er habe gehabt <i>he may have had</i>

Indicative

Subjunctive

Present Perfect

wir haben gehabt <i>we have had</i>	wir haben gehabt <i>we may have had</i>
ihr habt gehabt <i>you have had</i>	ihr habet gehabt <i>you may have had</i>
sie haben gehabt <i>they have had</i>	sie haben gehabt <i>they may have had</i>

Past Perfect

ich hatte gehabt <i>I had had</i>	ich hätte gehabt <i>I might have had</i>
du hattest gehabt <i>thou hadst had</i>	du hättest gehabt <i>thou mightest have had</i>
er hatte gehabt <i>he had had</i>	er hätte gehabt <i>he might have had</i>
wir hatten gehabt <i>we had had</i>	wir hätten gehabt <i>we might have had</i>
ihr hattet gehabt <i>you had had</i>	ihr hättest gehabt <i>you might have had</i>
sie hatten gehabt <i>they had had</i>	sie hätten gehabt <i>they might have had</i>

Future

ich werde haben <i>I shall have</i>	ich werde haben <i>I shall have</i>
du wirst haben <i>thou wilt have</i>	du werdest haben <i>thou wilt have</i>
er wird haben <i>he will have</i>	er werde haben <i>he will have</i>
wir werden haben <i>we shall have</i>	wir werden haben <i>we shall have</i>
ihr werdet haben <i>you will have</i>	ihr werdet haben <i>you will have</i>
sie werden haben <i>they will have</i>	sie werden haben <i>they will have</i>

Indicative

Subjunctive

Future Perfect

ich werde gehabt haben <i>I shall have had</i>	ich werde gehabt haben <i>I shall have had</i>
du wirst gehabt haben <i>thou wilt have had</i>	du werdest gehabt haben <i>thou wilt have had</i>
er wird gehabt haben <i>he will have had</i>	er werde gehabt haben <i>he will have had</i>
wir werden gehabt haben <i>we shall have had</i>	wir werden gehabt haben <i>we shall have had</i>
ihr werdet gehabt haben <i>you will have had</i>	ihr werdet gehabt haben <i>you will have had</i>
sie werden gehabt haben <i>they will have had</i>	sie werden gehabt haben <i>they will have had</i>

Past Future (Subjunctive)

ich würde haben <i>I should have</i>
du würdest haben <i>thou wouldst have</i>
er würde haben <i>he would have</i>
wir würden haben <i>we should have</i>
ihr würdet haben <i>you would have</i>
sie würden haben <i>they would have</i>

Past Future Perfect

ich würde gehabt haben <i>I should have had</i>
du würdest gehabt haben <i>thou wouldst have had</i>
er würde gehabt haben <i>he would have had</i>
wir würden gehabt haben <i>we should have had</i>
ihr würdet gehabt haben <i>you would have had</i>
sie würden gehabt haben <i>they would have had</i>

Imperative

habe (du) *have (thou)* habet (ihr) *have (you)*
 haben *Sie have (you)*

Present Infinitive

(zu) *haben* *to have*

Past Infinitive

gehabt (zu) *haben* *to have had*

Present Participle

habend *having*

Past Participle

gehabt *had*

1. The pronoun *Sie you* is given above with the present tense, in parenthesis, and with the imperative to show its grammatical relations. It is omitted elsewhere, and will be omitted from all later paradigms except with the imperative. The pronouns *du* and *ihr* are inserted above in parenthesis with the imperative, and the preposition *zu* with the infinitives, to show their position when used. They will be omitted from all the later paradigms.

2. The forms *haben wir*, *habe er*, and *haben sie* are often given with the imperative, but as they are really subjunctives (§ 530), they are omitted here. On the other hand, *haben Sie*, though likewise a subjunctive in origin, is now undoubtedly felt as an imperative and is therefore included in the paradigm. The *e* of *habet* (imperative) is often omitted, and *hab'* may occur instead of *habe* in colloquial style.

3. *Haben* is almost a normal weak verb. If it were entirely regular, it would have *habst*, *hast*, *habe* instead of *haft*, *hat*, *hatte*. The modified vowel of the past subjunctive is also unusual for a weak verb; but see § 215, 2.

205. Translations. It is a question whether English translations should be given for the forms of the verb in any of the paradigms. Those used above are the conventional ones, but they are inadequate and may often prove misleading, particularly with the subjunctive. The English equivalents of the German verbal forms will be made more evident in the discussion of the moods and tenses in the Syntax.

206. Conjugation of sein.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *sein, war, gewesen*

Indicative		Subjunctive
<i>I am, etc.</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>I may be, etc.</i>
ich bin	ich sei	
du bist	du sei(e)st	
er ist	er sei	
wir sind	wir seien	
ihr seid	ihr seiet	
sie sind	sie seien	
<i>I was, etc.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>I might be, etc.</i>
ich war	ich wäre	
du warst	du wärest	
er war	er wäre	
wir waren	wir wären	
ihr war(e)t	ihr wäret	
sie waren	sie wären	
<i>I have been, etc.</i>	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>I may have been</i>
ich bin gewesen	ich sei gewesen	
du bist gewesen	du sei(e)st gewesen	
er ist gewesen	er sei gewesen	
wir sind gewesen	wir seien gewesen	
ihr seid gewesen	ihr seiet gewesen	
sie sind gewesen	sie seien gewesen	
<i>I had been, etc.</i>	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>I might have been</i>
ich war gewesen	ich wäre gewesen	
du warst gewesen	du wärest gewesen	
er war gewesen	er wäre gewesen	

Indicative

I had been, etc.

wir waren gewesen
ihr war(e)t gewesen
sie waren gewesen

Subjunctive

*Past Perfect**I might have been, etc.*

wir wären gewesen
ihr wäret gewesen
sie wären gewesen

Future

I shall be, etc.

ich werde sein
du wirst sein
er wird sein

wir werden sein
ihr werdet sein
sie werden sein

I shall be, etc.

ich werde sein
du werdest sein
er werde sein

wir werden sein
ihr werdet sein
sie werden sein

Future Perfect

I shall have been, etc.

ich werde gewesen sein
du wirst gewesen sein
er wird gewesen sein

wir werden gewesen sein
ihr werdet gewesen sein
sie werden gewesen sein

I shall have been, etc.

ich werde gewesen sein
du werdest gewesen sein
er werde gewesen sein

wir werden gewesen sein
ihr werdet gewesen sein
sie werden gewesen sein

Past Future (Subjunctive)

I should be, etc.

ich würde sein
du würdest sein
er würde sein

wir würden sein
ihr würdet sein
sie würden sein

Past Future Perfect

I should have been, etc.

ich würde gewesen sein
du würdest gewesen sein
er würde gewesen sein

wir würden gewesen sein
ihr würdet gewesen sein
sie würden gewesen sein

Imperative	
<i>sei be</i>	<i>seid be</i>
<i>seien Sie be</i>	
Present Infinitive	Past Infinitive
<i>sein be</i>	<i>gewesen sein to have been</i>
Present Participle	Past Participle
<i>seidend being</i>	<i>gewesen been</i>

1. The omission of e of the ending occurs often in *du seist* and *ihr wart* and sometimes elsewhere.

2. The conjugation of *sein* is actually pieced together from three different stems, as is the case in English with the inflection of *be*. Other forms than those found in the paradigm no longer exist for two of the stems, though an imperative singular *bis* occasionally occurs in older literature. Additional forms of *wesen* (besides *war*, etc., and *gewesen* above) are not quite so rare. The substantive infinitive *Weser* *being* is still a noun in good standing. Instead of (*ich* or *er*) *war* there occurs occasionally (*ich* or *er*) *was*, preserving, like *was* in English, the old s of the past tense.

207. Conjugation of *werden*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *werden, wurde, geworden*

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Present</i>	
<i>I become, etc.</i>	<i>I may become, etc.</i>
<i>ich werde</i>	<i>ich werde</i>
<i>du wirst</i>	<i>du werdest</i>
<i>er wird</i>	<i>er werde</i>
<i>wir werden</i>	<i>wir werden</i>
<i>ihr werdet</i>	<i>ihr werdet</i>
<i>sie werden</i>	<i>sie werden</i>

Indicative

I became, etc.
 ich wurde or ward
 du wurdest or wardst
 er wurde or ward
 wir wurden
 ihr wurdet
 sie wurden

Subjunctive

Past

I might become, etc.
 ich würde
 du würdest
 er würde
 wir würden
 ihr würdet
 sie würden

Present Perfect

I have become, etc.
 ich bin geworden
 du bist geworden
 er ist geworden
 wir sind geworden
 ihr seid geworden
 sie sind geworden

I may have become, etc.
 ich sei geworden
 du sei(e)st geworden
 er sei geworden
 wir seien geworden
 ihr seiet geworden
 sie seien geworden

Past Perfect

I had become, etc.
 ich war geworden
 du warst geworden
 er war geworden
 wir waren geworden
 ihr war(e)t geworden
 sie waren geworden

I might have become, etc.
 ich wäre geworden
 du wärest geworden
 er wäre geworden
 wir wären geworden
 ihr wäret geworden
 sie wären geworden

Future

I shall be, etc.
 ich werde werden
 du werdest werden
 er wird werden

I shall be, etc.
 ich werde werden
 du werdest werden
 er werde werden

Indicative

I shall be, etc.
 wir werden werden
 ihr werdet werden
 sie werden werden

Subjunctive

Future

I shall be, etc.
 wir werden werden
 ihr werdet werden
 sie werden werden

Future Perfect

I shall have been, etc.
 ich werde geworden sein
 du wirst geworden sein
 er wird geworden sein
 wir werden geworden sein
 ihr werdet geworden sein
 sie werden geworden sein

I shall have been, etc.
 ich werde geworden sein
 du werdest geworden sein
 er werde geworden sein
 wir werden geworden sein
 ihr werdet geworden sein
 sie werden geworden sein

Past Future (Subjunctive)

I should become, etc.
 ich würde werden
 du würdest werden
 er würde werden
 wir würden werden
 ihr würdet werden
 sie würden werden

Past Future Perfect

I should have become, etc.
 ich würde geworden sein
 du würdest geworden sein
 er würde geworden sein
 wir würden geworden sein
 ihr würdet geworden sein
 sie würden geworden sein

Imperative

werde become *werdet become*
werden Sie become

Present Infinitive

werden to become
 Present Participle
werdend becoming

Past Infinitive

geworden sein to have become
 Past Participle
geworden become

1. *Werden* is almost a normal strong verb. The second forms of the past indicative singular, *warb*, *warbst*, *warb*, are due to a former distinction between the vowels of the past singular and plural. See § 232. They are the older forms and are still frequently found in literature, though superseded by *wurbe*, *wurdest*, *wurbe* in ordinary speech. The past participle is *worden* with the passive and occasionally elsewhere. See § 238.

Conjugations of Verbs

208. There are in German two conjugations of verbs, the strong and the weak (also called the old and the new). The principal difference between the two is in the formation of the past tense and the past participle. In the strong conjugation the past tense is formed by a change in the vowel of the root; the past participle adds *en*, sometimes with and sometimes without change of the vowel of the root. In the weak conjugation the past tense is formed by an addition to the root, without a change of the vowel; the past participle adds (*e*)*t*, also without changing the vowel. Minor differences between the two conjugations are mentioned in connection with the paradigms below. The weak conjugation, being the simpler, will be taken up first. See § 206 for the translations into English given in the paradigms below.

WEAK CONJUGATION

209. The endings to be added to the stem are those given in § 196. The past tense, however, prefixes *t* to the personal endings, or *et* if the stem of the verb ends in *d* or *t*, or in *m* or *n* preceded by a simple consonant except *l* or *r*. See § 213. It may also prefix *et* to these endings after other stems in poetry and in elevated prose. The past indicative and subjunctive are alike. The usual auxiliary is *haben*, but a number of verbs have *sein*. An example of each of these ways of inflection is given below.

210. Conjugation of a Weak Verb with **haben**.PRINCIPAL PARTS: *loben, lobte, gelobt*

Indicative

Subjunctive

*Present**I praise, etc.**I may praise, etc.*

ich lobe

ich lobe

du lobst

du lobest

er lobt

er lobe

wir loben

wir loben

ihr lobt

ihr lobet

sie loben

sie loben

*Past**I praised, etc.**I might praise, etc.*

ich lobte

ich lobte

du lobtest

du lobtest

er lobte

er lobte

wir lobten

wir lobten

ihr lobtet

ihr lobtet

sie lobten

sie lobten

*Present Perfect**I have praised, etc.**I may have praised, etc.*

ich habe gelobt

ich habe gelobt

du hast gelobt

du habest gelobt

er hat gelobt

er habe gelobt

wir haben gelobt

wir haben gelobt

ihr habt gelobt

ihr habet gelobt

sie haben gelobt

sie haben gelobt

Indicative

I had praised, etc.

ich hatte gelobt
du hastest gelobt
er hatte gelobt
wir hatten gelobt
ihr hattet gelobt
sie hatten gelobt

Subjunctive

Past Perfect

I might have praised, etc.

ich hätte gelobt
du hättest gelobt
er hätte gelobt
wir hätten gelobt
ihr hättest gelobt
sie hätten gelobt

Future

I shall praise, etc.

ich werde loben
du wirst loben
er wird loben
wir werden loben
ihr werdet loben
sie werden loben

I shall praise, etc.

ich werde loben
du werdest loben
er werde loben
wir werden loben
ihr werdet loben
sie werden loben

Future Perfect

I shall have praised, etc.

ich werde gelobt haben
du wirst gelobt haben
er wird gelobt haben
wir werden gelobt haben
ihr werdet gelobt haben
sie werden gelobt haben

I shall have praised, etc.

ich werde gelobt haben
du werdest gelobt haben
er werde gelobt haben
wir werden gelobt haben
ihr werdet gelobt haben
sie werden gelobt haben

Past Future (Subjunctive) •

I should praise, etc.

ich würde loben
du würdest loben
er würde loben

Past Future Perfect

I should have praised, etc.

ich würde gelobt haben
du würdest gelobt haben
er würde gelobt haben

Subjunctive

Past Future

I should praise, etc.
 wir würden loben
 ihr würdet loben
 sie würden loben

Past Future Perfect

I should have praised etc.
 wir würden gelobt haben
 ihr würdet gelobt haben
 sie würden gelobt haben

Imperative

<i>lobē praise</i>	<i>lob(e)t praise</i>
<i>loben Sie praise</i>	
<i>Present Infinitive</i>	<i>Past Infinitive</i>
<i>loben to praise</i>	<i>gelobt haben to have praised</i>
<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
<i>lobend praising</i>	<i>gelobt praised</i>

i. The e of the imperative plural is often dropped, lobet and lobt being both very common. The e of the imperative singular may be dropped in colloquial style, thus, lob' for lobe. For the rules for the omission or retention of e elsewhere see § 197. For the inflection with stems showing special peculiarities in the use of e see §§ 212-214.

211. Conjugation of a Weak Verb with *sein*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: folgen, folgte, gefolgt

Indicative

<i>I follow, etc.</i>	<i>I may follow, etc.</i>
ich folge	ich folge
du folgst	du folgest
er folgt	er folge
wir folgen	wir folgen
ihr folgt	ihr folget
sie folgen	sie folgen

Subjunctive

Present

Indicative

I followed, etc.
 ich folgte
 du folgtest
 er folgte

wir folgten
 ihr folget
 sie folgten

Past

Subjunctive

I might follow, etc.
 ich folgte
 du folgtest
 er folgte
 wir folgten
 ihr folget
 sie folgten

Present Perfect

I have followed, etc.
 ich bin gefolgt
 du bist gefolgt
 er ist gefolgt

wir sind gefolgt
 ihr seid gefolgt
 sie sind gefolgt

I may have followed, etc.
 ich sei gefolgt
 du sei(e)st gefolgt
 er sei gefolgt

wir seien gefolgt
 ihr seiet gefolgt
 sie seien gefolgt

Past Perfect

I had followed, etc.
 ich war gefolgt
 du warst gefolgt
 er war gefolgt

wir waren gefolgt
 ihr war(e)t gefolgt
 sie waren gefolgt

I might have followed, etc.
 ich wäre gefolgt
 du wärest gefolgt
 er wäre gefolgt

wir wären gefolgt
 ihr wäret gefolgt
 sie wären gefolgt

Future

I shall follow, etc.
 ich werde folgen
 du werdest folgen
 er wird folgen

I shall follow, etc.
 ich werde folgen
 du werdest folgen
 er werde folgen

Indicative

I shall follow, etc.
 wir werden folgen
 ihr werdet folgen
 sie werden folgen

Subjunctive

Future

I shall follow, etc.
 wir werden folgen
 ihr werdet folgen
 sie werden folgen

Future Perfect

I shall have followed, etc.
 ich werde gefolgt sein
 du wirst gefolgt sein
 er wird gefolgt sein
 wir werden gefolgt sein
 ihr werdet gefolgt sein
 sie werden gefolgt sein

I shall have followed, etc.
 ich werde gefolgt sein
 du werdest gefolgt sein
 er werde gefolgt sein
 wir werden gefolgt sein
 ihr werdet gefolgt sein
 sie werden gefolgt sein

Past Future (Subjunctive)

I should follow, etc.
 ich würde folgen
 du würdest folgen
 er würde folgen
 wir würden folgen
 ihr würdet folgen
 sie würden folgen

Past Future Perfect

I should have followed, etc.
 ich würde gefolgt sein
 du würdest gefolgt sein
 er würde gefolgt sein
 wir würden gefolgt sein
 ihr würdet gefolgt sein
 sie würden gefolgt sein

Imperative

folge *follow* folg(e)t *follow*
 folgen *Sie follow*

Present Infinitive

folgen *to follow*

Past Infinitive

gefollgt sein *to have followed*

Present Participle

folgend *following*

Past Participle

gefollgt *followed*

1. For the retention or omission of e of endings see under *loben* above. The forms of the intransitive verbs with *sein* must not be confused with the passive. Thus, *ich bin gefolgt* means *I have followed*, not *I am followed*. This corresponds to the few verbs which still occasionally take *be* in English; as, *I am come, they are arrived*, etc.

212. Stems ending in a Sibilant. These regularly retain the e of the ending est. The present indicative runs thus:

ich tanze	<i>I dance, etc.</i>	ich reise	<i>I travel, etc.</i>
du tanzest		du reisest	
er tanzt		er reist	

The rest of the verb has the regular conjugation. The contracted forms (bu) tanzt and reist are not infrequently used, especially in conversation, instead of (du) tanzest and reisest.

213. Stems ending in b, t, m, or n. Verbs with stems ending in b, t, or in m or n preceded by a single consonant except l or r, regularly have e before st and t, as follows:

Present Indicative

ich rede	<i>I talk, etc.</i>	ich zeichne	<i>I draw, etc.</i>
du redest		du zeichnest	
er redet		er zeichnet	
wir reden		wir zeichnen	
ihr redet		ihr zeichnet	
sie reden		sie zeichnen	

Past Indicative

ich redete		ich zeichnete	
du redetest, etc.		du zeichnetest, etc.	

Past Participle

geredet	gezeichnet
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The remaining forms can easily be supplied. Forms without the e sometimes occur with stems in b and t; thus, reb'st or reb't, reb't or reb't, aufgericht' for aufgerichtet, etc. After stems ending in n belonging here, the accepted spelling is that given in *zeichnen* above, but Germans often say, and sometimes write, er zeichnet, ich zeichente, gezeichnet, etc.

214. Stems ending in *el* and *er*. Verbs with such stems occasionally keep the *e* of these syllables and also of the ending; as, (*ich*) *wan-*
dele, *wanbere*, etc. Their ordinary inflection is, however, the following:

Present Indicative

<i>ich hande I act, etc.</i>	<i>ich wandre I wander, etc.</i>
<i>du handelst</i>	<i>du wandertest</i>
<i>er handelt</i>	<i>er wandert</i>
<i>wir handeln</i>	<i>wir wandern</i>
<i>ihr handelt</i>	<i>ihr wandert</i>
<i>sie handeln</i>	<i>sie wandern</i>

Past Indicative

<i>ich handelte</i>	<i>ich wanderte</i>
<i>du handeltest, etc.</i>	<i>du wandertest, etc.</i>

Imperative

<i>hand(e)le, wand(e)re</i>	<i>handelt, wandert</i>
<i>handeln Sie, wandern Sie</i>	

Participles

<i>handelnd, gehandelt</i>	<i>wandernd, gewandert</i>
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The infinitives are *handeln* and *wandern*. The present subjunctive commonly keeps the *e* of the ending throughout, while the *e* of the final syllable of the stem may or may not be dropped; as, *ich hand(e)le*, *du hand(e)lest*, etc. The past subjunctive is like the past indicative. The rest of the conjugation can be readily supplied.

IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

215. The irregular weak verbs in addition to *haben* are:

1. The following, which have *e* in the present stem and *a* in the past indicative (but not in the past subjunctive) and past participle:

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	
	<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>	
brennen <i>burn</i>	brannte	brennte	gebrannt
lennen <i>know</i>	lannte	lennte	gelnannt
nennen <i>name</i>	nannte	nennte	genannt
rennen <i>run</i>	rannte	rennte	gerannt
senden <i>send</i>	sandte	sendete	gesandt
wenden <i>turn</i>	wandte	wendete	gewandt

Both *senden* and *wenden* are often entirely regular.

2. The two following, which show greater irregularities in their principal parts:

<i>Infinitive</i>	.	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
	Indicative	Subjunctive	
bringen <i>bring</i>	brachte	brächte	gebracht
denken <i>think</i>	dachte	dächte	gedacht

3. *Dürfen seem*, which has the past indicative and subjunctive *deuchte* and the past participle *gedeucht*. It may also be regular. From the past *deuchte* has been developed an infinitive *deuchten* and a corresponding present. Other vagaries of the word must be left to the dictionary.

THE MODAL AUXILIARIES AND *wissen*

216. *Dürfen*, *können*, *mögen*, *müssen*, *sollen*, and *wissen* are known as past-present verbs. Their present has the form of a strong past, while their past, infinitive, and participle are weak and were developed later. *Wollen* is of different origin but now exhibits the same general peculiarities. They may be all classed as irregular weak verbs. Their principal parts are:

<i>Infinitive</i>	.	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
	Indicative	Subjunctive	
dürfen <i>be allowed</i>	durfte	dürfte	gedurft
können <i>can</i>	könnte	könnte	gefomnt
mögen <i>may</i>	mochte	möchte	gemocht
müssen <i>must</i>	mußte	mußte	gemußt
sollen <i>shall</i>	sollte	sollte	gesollt
wollen <i>will</i>	wollte	wollte	gewollt
wissen <i>know</i>	wußte	wüßte	gewußt

217. *Conjugation.* The present singular presents special peculiarities, but the rest of the conjugation of these verbs is entirely regular according to the principal parts just given. As shown above, all except *sollen* and *wollen* have the modified vowel in the past subjunctive. Only *wollen* and *wissen* form an imperative. The present participle, though little used (with the exception of *wissend*), is entirely regular.

Present Indicative

ich darf	kann	mag	muß	soll	will	weiß
du darfst	kannst	magst	mußt	sollst	willst	weißt
er darf	kann	mag	muß	soll	will	weiß
wir dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen	wissen
ihr dürft	könnt	mögt	müßt	sollt	wollt	wiñt
sie dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen	wissen

Present Subjunctive

ich dürfe	könne	möge	müsse	solle	wolle	wisse
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Past Indicative

ich durfte	könnte	mochte	mußte	sollte	wollte	wußte
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Past Subjunctive

ich dürfte	könnte	möchte	müßte	sollte	wollte	wüßte
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Imperative

wolle	woll(e)t	wisse	wisset or wiñt
wollen Sie		wissen Sie	

Present Participle

dürfend	könndend	mögend	müssend	sollend	wollend	wissend
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The other tenses are: Pres. Perf. Ind. ich habe gedurft, gekonnt, etc., du hast gedurft, gekonnt, etc.; Pres. Perf. Subj. ich habe gedurft, gekonnt, etc., du hast gedurft, gekonnt, etc.; Past Perf. Ind. ich hatte gedurft, gekonnt, etc.; Past Perf. Subj. ich hätte gedurft, gekonnt, etc.; Fut. Ind. ich werde dürfen, können, etc., du wirst dürfen, können, etc.; Fut. Subj. ich werde dürfen, können, etc., du werdest dürfen, können, etc.; Fut. Perf. Ind. ich werde gedurft haben, etc., du wirst gedurft haben, etc.; Fut. Perf. Subj. ich werde gedurft haben, etc., du werdest gedurft haben, etc.; Past Fut. ich würde dürfen, können, etc.; Past Perf. ich würde gedurft haben, etc. For the use of the past participle in compound tenses see §§ 482, 2 a and 483.

218. With Dependent Infinitive. If the modal auxiliaries (but not wissen) occur with a dependent infinitive, they substitute their infinitive for their past participle in compound tenses. The tenses primarily concerned are the present perfect and past perfect, both indicative and subjunctive. As the construction with a dependent infinitive occurs so often that it may be called the normal one, this change of inflection needs careful attention. In the following synopsis, in which, for the sake of convenient reference, all the compound tenses of dürfen are given, the sign — indicates the usual position of the dependent infinitive.

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Present Perfect</i>	
ich habe —— dürfen	ich habe —— dürfen
<i>Past Perfect</i>	
ich hatte —— dürfen	ich hätte —— dürfen
<i>Future</i>	
ich werde —— dürfen	ich werde —— dürfen
<i>Future Perfect</i>	
ich werde haben —— dürfen	ich werde haben —— dürfen
<i>Past Future</i>	
ich würde —— dürfen	
<i>Past Future Perfect</i>	
ich würde haben —— dürfen	

1. The future perfect and the past future perfect are included here, as is customary, but their actual existence in ordinary speech is questionable. Other verbs, notably lassen, may also substitute the infinitive for the past participle after the manner of the modal auxiliaries. See §§ 562, 563.

The origin of this construction is in dispute, but whatever it may be, the substituted form is now clearly felt as an infinitive.

STRONG CONJUGATION

219. The past tense is formed by a change in the vowel of the root; the past participle adds *en*, sometimes with and sometimes without change of the vowel of the root. For details see § 234. A list of the strong verbs is given in § 236. The usual auxiliary is *haben*, but a number of verbs have *sein*. An example of each of these ways of inflection is given below.

220. Present Tense. Most strong verbs are conjugated in the present indicative and subjunctive exactly like weak verbs. About one third of them, however, change the vowel of the second and third person singular of the present indicative, as follows:

1. Those having *a* as the vowel of the present stem modify the *a* in the two forms mentioned. The only exceptions are *ſchallen*, *ſchaffen*, and a few other verbs which take weak forms in part. See the list in § 236 for the meanings and for further details about the inflection of these verbs and of others mentioned below. For the cause of this change see § 196.

2. *Laufen*, *ſauſen*, and *ſtoſen* also modify the vowel in the same way. In older literature *kömmſt* and *kömmmt* occur not infrequently, though they are now rare.

3. Verbs with short *e* in the present stem take *i* in the second and third person of the present indicative. Those with long *e* in the present stem are variously treated: (a) *Geben*, *nehmen*, and *treten* change the *e* to *i*. (b) *Befehlen*, *empfehlen*, *geschehen*, *lesen*, *ſcheren*, *ſehen*, and *ſtehlen* change the *e* to *ie* (that is, to long *i*). (c) *Bewegen*, *gehen*, *genesen*, *heben*, *ſplegen*, and *weben* keep the *e* unchanged. *Löſchen* and *gebären*, formerly spelled with *e* in the present stem, change to *i* and *ie* respectively in the two forms. For the cause of these changes see § 196.

4. *Fliegen*, *ſtrießen*, and a few similar verbs have, in addition to the usual regular forms for these two persons (as, *du fliegſt*, *er fliegt*), older and rare forms in *eu* (as, *du fleugſt*, *er fleugt*).

5. The verbs making these vowel changes also commonly drop the

e of the endings in these two persons, often quite contrary to the usage with weak verbs. For details see §§ 225, 226. Notice the doubling of the consonant in *nimmst*, *nimmt*, *trittst*, *tritt* to show that the i is short.

221. Past Tense. The first and third person singular of the indicative add no endings. The subjunctive adds e in these persons and modifies the stem vowel throughout, if possible. For the cause of this modification see § 196.

1. The consonant of the stem is sometimes doubled or made single to show the quantity of the stem vowel. *Leiden*, *schneiden*, and *sieden* change b to tt in the past tense and past participle; as, *litt*, *gelitten*, from *leiden*. Other consonant changes in the past tense or past participle (such as occur in *ziehen*, *zog*, *gezogen*) are confined to individual verbs. The past indicative occasionally added the ending e for the first and third person singular in older literature; as, *ih̄ sah̄e*.

2. In older German many verbs had two vowels in the stem of the past indicative, one for the first and third person singular, the other for the second person singular and the whole plural. The subjunctive had the vowel of the plural. In modern German one of these two vowels has, as a rule, prevailed for the whole of the indicative and subjunctive. In a few cases, however, the vowel of the past participle has crowded into the past tense; in a few others the verb has changed its principal parts to agree with another verb. Survivals of older usage still occur in double forms for a few verbs, such as *hob*, *hub*, *schwör*, *schwur*, *stand*, *stund*, but even then the same vowel runs through both the singular and the plural. See the verb list in § 236. The subjunctive, especially in poetry, is more disposed to have double forms than the indicative. Notice also the past of *werben*, § 207.

222. Imperative. Strong verbs originally had no ending for the singular of the imperative, but the practice of adding e, after the manner of weak verbs, is on the increase, and both forms are now common with most strong verbs. The e is therefore added in parenthesis in the paradigms below. Verbs that make the change from e to i or ie in the present indicative (§ 220, 3) carry this change over to the singular of the imperative and do not add e; as, *gib*, *ließ*. Those that have a second form in eu in the indicative (§ 220, 4) also

have double forms in the imperative singular; as, *flieg(e)* and *flieg*. Strong verbs seem to drop the e of the imperative plural less frequently than weak ones.

1. *Sehen* has the double imperative singular *sieh* or *siehe*. Other verbs of the same type very rarely add the e. Sometimes the change from e to i or ie is not carried over to the imperative singular; as, *helfe, sehe*, etc., for the far more usual *hilf, sieh*, etc.

223. Conjugation of a Strong Verb with *haben*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *singen, sang, gesungen*

Indicative	Subjunctive
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Present

<i>I sing, etc.</i>	<i>I may sing, etc.</i>
---------------------	-------------------------

ich singe	ich singe
du singst	du singest
er singt	er singe
wir singen	wir singen
ihr singt	ihr singet
sie singen	sie singen

Past

<i>I sang, etc.</i>	<i>I might sing, etc.</i>
---------------------	---------------------------

ich sang	ich sänge
du sangst	du sängest
er sang	er sänge
wir sangen	wir sängen
ihr sangt	ihr sänget
sie sangen	sie sängen

Present Perfect

<i>I have sung, etc.</i>	<i>I may have sung, etc.</i>
--------------------------	------------------------------

ich habe gesungen	ich habe gesungen
du hast gesungen	du hast gesungen
er hat gesungen	er habe gesungen

Indicative

I have sung, etc.
 wir haben gesungen
 ihr habt gesungen
 sie haben gesungen

Subjunctive

Present Perfect

I may have sung, etc.
 wir haben gesungen
 ihr habet gesungen
 sie haben gesungen

Past Perfect

I had sung, etc.
 ich hatte gesungen
 du hattest gesungen
 er hatte gesungen
 wir hatten gesungen
 ihr hattet gesungen
 sie hatten gesungen

I might have sung, etc.
 ich hätte gesungen
 du hättest gesungen
 er hätte gesungen
 wir hätten gesungen
 ihr hättest gesungen
 sie hätten gesungen

Future

I shall sing, etc.
 ich werde singen
 du werst singen
 er wird singen
 wir werden singen
 ihr werdet singen
 sie werden singen

I shall sing, etc.
 ich werde singen
 du werdest singen
 er werde singen
 wir werden singen
 ihr werdet singen
 sie werden singen

Future Perfect

I shall have sung, etc.
 ich werde gesungen haben
 du werst gesungen haben
 er wird gesungen haben
 wir werden gesungen haben
 ihr werdet gesungen haben
 sie werden gesungen haben

I shall have sung, etc.
 ich werde gesungen haben
 du werdest gesungen haben
 er werde gesungen haben
 wir werden gesungen haben
 ihr werdet gesungen haben
 sie werden gesungen haben

*Past Future (Subjunctive)**I should sing, etc.*

ich würde singen

du würdest singen

er würde singen

wir würden singen

ihr würdet singen

sie würden singen

*Past Future Perfect**I should have sung, etc.*

ich würde gesungen haben

du würdest gesungen haben

er würde gesungen haben

wir würden gesungen haben

ihr würdet gesungen haben

sie würden gesungen haben

*Imperative**sing(e) sing**singen Sie sing**singet sing**Present Infinitive**singen to sing**Past Infinitive**gesungen haben to have sung**Present Participle**singend singing**Past Participle**gesungen sung*

1. The usual dropping of e of the indicative endings is shown here. For the general rules for the omission or retention of e see § 197. Strong verbs showing special peculiarities of inflection in stem or ending are discussed in §§ 225–228. For the (e) of the imperative singular see § 222. Instead of the full form of the imperative plural, forms without e in the ending, as singt, are not uncommon.

224. Conjugation of a Strong Verb with sein.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: kommen, kam, gekommen

*Indicative**Subjunctive**Present**I come, etc.**I may come, etc.*

ich komme

ich komme

du kommst

du kommest

er kommt

er komme

Indicative

I come, etc.
 wir kommen
 ihr kommt
 sie kommen

I came, etc.

ich kam
 du kamst
 er kam
 wir kamen
 ihr kamt
 sie kamen

Present Perfect

I have come, etc.
 ich bin gekommen
 du bist gekommen
 er ist gekommen
 wir sind gekommen
 ihr seid gekommen
 sie sind gekommen

I had come, etc.

ich war gekommen
 du warst gekommen
 er war gekommen
 wir waren gekommen
 ihr war(e)t gekommen
 sie waren gekommen

Subjunctive

Present

I may come, etc.
 wir kommen
 ihr kommt
 sie kommen

Past

I might come, etc.
 ich käme
 du kämest
 er käme
 wir kämen
 ihr kämet
 sie kämen

Present Perfect

I may have come, etc.
 ich sei gekommen
 du sei(e)st gekommen
 er sei gekommen
 wir seien gekommen
 ihr seiet gekommen
 sie seien gekommen

Past Perfect

I might have come, etc.
 ich wäre gekommen
 du wärest gekommen
 er wäre gekommen
 wir wären gekommen
 ihr wäret gekommen
 sie wären gekommen

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>I shall come, etc.</i>	<i>I shall come, etc.</i>
ich werde kommen	ich werde kommen
du wirst kommen	du werdest kommen
er wird kommen	er werde kommen
wir werden kommen	wir werden kommen
ihr werdet kommen	ihr werdet kommen
sie werden kommen	sie werden kommen
<i>Future Perfect</i>	
<i>I shall have come, etc.</i>	<i>I shall have come, etc.</i>
ich werde gekommen sein	ich werde gekommen sein
du wirst gekommen sein	du werdest gekommen sein
er wird gekommen sein	er werde gekommen sein
wir werden gekommen sein	wir werden gekommen sein
ihr werdet gekommen sein	ihr werdet gekommen sein
sie werden gekommen sein	sie werden gekommen sein
<hr/>	
<i>Past Future (Subjunctive)</i>	<i>Past Future Perfect</i>
<i>I should come, etc.</i>	<i>I should have come, etc.</i>
ich würde kommen	ich würde gekommen sein
du würdest kommen	du würdest gekommen sein
er würde kommen	er würde gekommen sein
wir würden kommen	wir würden gekommen sein
ihr würdet kommen	ihr würdet gekommen sein
sie würden kommen	sie würden gekommen sein
<i>Imperative</i>	
komm(e) come	komm(e) come
kommen Sie come	kommen Sie come

Present Infinitive

kommen *to come*

Present Participle

kommend *coming*

1. For the omission of e, etc. see comments under the paradigm of singen.

225. Verbs with Modified Vowel in the Present Indicative. The present indicative of such verbs (§ 220, 1, 2) runs:

ich halte <i>I hold, etc.</i>	ich laufe <i>I run, etc.</i>
du hältst	du läufst
er hält	er läuft
wir halten	wir laufen
ihr haltet	ihr lauft
sie halten	sie laufen

The remainder of the verb shows no special peculiarities. Notice that verbs thus modifying the vowel do not add t in the third person singular if the stem ends in t.

226. Verbs that change e to i or ie. The present indicative and the imperative of such verbs (§ 220, 3) run:

Present Indicative

ich esse <i>I eat, etc.</i>	ich sehe <i>I see, etc.</i>
du ißt or ißest	du siehst
er ißt	er sieht
wir essen	wir sehen
ihr eßt	ihr sieht
sie essen	sie sehen

Imperative

iß	effet	sieh	sehet
essen Sie		sehen Sie	

The rest of the conjugation of such verbs shows no special peculiarities. Both forms of the second person singular, ißt and ißest, are common. If the stem ends in t, another t is not added in the third person singular (§ 228). For variant imperatives, such as esse, siehe, sehe, etc., see § 222, 1.

227. Stems ending in a Sibilant. Strong verbs that do not change their vowel in the present indicative regularly follow the model of weak verbs and retain the e of the ending est in the present indicative and elsewhere. Thus, from *befßen bite*, and *gießen pour*, come: Pres. Ind. and Subj. *du beifst, giefest*; Past Ind. *du bisstest, gosfest*; Past Subj. *du bissfest, göffest*. Contracted forms, such as *du beift*, may also occur in the present indicative but very rarely elsewhere. If the vowel of the present indicative is modified or undergoes the change from e to i or ie, contraction in this form is very common, as illustrated by *du ift* above, but is unusual elsewhere.

228. Stems ending in d or t. The few stems ending in t with modified a in the present indicative follow the model of *halten* (§ 226). Stems ending in t preceded by e have regularly only one t in the third person singular if they also change the e to i; as, *er sieht, birst*, from *sehsten sight*, *bersten burst*. *Laden load* has *du lädst* and *er lädt*. Other stems ending in d or t commonly run as follows in the present and past indicative.

Present Indicative

ich finde I find, etc.	ich gleite I glide, etc.
du findest	du gleitest
er findet	er gleitet
wir finden	wir gleiten
ihr findet	ihr gleitet
sie finden	sie gleiten

Past Indicative

ich fand	ich glitt
du fand(e)st	du glitt(e)st
er fand	er glitt
wir fanden	wir glitten
ihr fandet	ihr glittet
sie fanden	sie glitten

The rest of the inflection of such verbs offers no special difficulties. The e of est is very often dropped in the past indicative and rarely in the present. The e of et is occasionally dropped, especially in older literature, as *find't* or *findt* for *findet*.

IRREGULAR STRONG VERBS

229. For *sein* see § 206, and for *werden* § 207. The irregularities of other strong verbs, with the exception of *tun*, are indicated in the list in § 236.

230. Conjugation of *tun do*. This verb, which is often used colloquially as an auxiliary (§ 514, 1) in parts of Germany and occasionally in literature also, drops the e of the infinitive. Its present indicative runs: *iḥ tu(e)*, *du tust*, *er tut*, *wir tun*, *ih̄r tut*, *sie tun*, and the imperative: *tu(e)*, *tut*, *tun Sie*. The present subjunctive inserts the e, as, *iḥ tue*, *du tuest*, *wir tuen*, etc. The past indicative has the vowel of the old past plural. It runs: *iḥ tat*, *du tatest*, etc., the subjunctive being *iḥ tāte*, *du tātest*, etc.

1. There is also another past indicative with the vowel of the old past singular. Thus, *iḥ tät*, *du tätst*, *er tät*, etc. This looks like a subjunctive but is actually based on the Middle High German form *tete* with modern spelling. It is the usual form for the past when used as an auxiliary.

VERBS PARTLY STRONG AND PARTLY WEAK

231. A number of verbs formerly strong are wholly weak in modern German. Others are in a transition state. The latter may be roughly classified as: 1. Strong when intransitive, weak when transitive. 2. Both inflections existing side by side, but the one less common than the other or restricted to special meanings. 3. With only part of the strong forms in use now. The verb list in § 236 will give illustrations. A few formerly weak verbs have become completely strong and are included in the verb list without comment. A very few others (*fragen*, for example) have some strong forms in use by the side of the more frequent weak ones.

CLASSIFICATION OF STRONG VERBS

232. In Old High German the strong verb might present four variations of the vowel of the root. That is, the present, the past singular (§ 221, 2), the past plural, and the past participle might have different stem vowels, though only part of the verbs actually had all these possible variations. The changes in the vowel of the root were due to vowel gradation, or ablaut, which has already been discussed briefly in § 85. By grouping them according to the vowels presented in the four stems mentioned, the old strong verbs fall into six classes or gradation series. To these is added a seventh class, consisting of verbs which once formed their past by reduplication, but which assumed the appearance of other strong verbs as early as the Old High German period.

233. Classes in Old High German. By dropping all minor details these seven classes may be represented in their Old High German

form as follows, the infinitive being given as representing the present for convenience in comparison with the modern verb:

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past Sing.</i>	<i>Past Pl.</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
1. i	ei (ë)	i	i
2. io	ou (ö)	u	o
3. i (ë)	a	u	u (o)
4. e	a	ä	o
5. e	a	ä	e
6. a	uo	uo	a

7. Two subdivisions, according as the past had ia or io.

The vowels in parenthesis were found in some of the verbs of the series indicated. These represent differences due to the operation of other laws of sound. Thus, to illustrate, verbs of the third class had i in their infinitive and in the whole of the present and u in their past participle if their stem ended in a nasal + a consonant. Otherwise they had i in the present singular, e in the infinitive and present plural, and o in the past participle. Examples are *bintan* (now *binden*) and *helfan* (now *helfen*).

234. Classes in Modern German. These classes have assumed the following form in modern German, the distinction between the past singular and plural having been obliterated (except as explained in § 221, 2):

	<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
1.	ei	ie (i)	ie (i)

Thus, *treiben*, *trieb*, *getrieben*; *gleiten*, *glitt*, *gegliitten*.

2.	ie	o	o
----	----	---	---

Thus, *biegen*, *bog*, *gebogen*. *Eigen* and *(be)trügen* have ii, and a few others have ou in the infinitive.

3.	i (ë)	a	u (o)
----	-------	---	-------

Thus, *binden*, *bund*, *gebunden*; *helfen*, *half*, *geholfen*. See the comment about the third class in the paragraph above. A few of the verbs belonging here now have the vowel of the past participle in the past tense. Thus, *quellen*, *quoll*, *gequollen*.

4.	e	a	o
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Thus, *treffen*, *traf*, *getroffen*. *Löschen* now has ö and a few others have ä in the infinitive. *Kommen* is the result of several changes. The a of the past tense is usually long. In a few cases the past tense has the same vowel as the past participle; as, *scheren*, *schor*, *geschorren*.

5. e a e

Thus, *geben*, *gab*, *gegeben*. The a of the past tense is long. *Bitten*, *liegen*, and *sitzen* also belong here now.

6. a u a

Thus, *fahren*, *fuhr*, *gefahren*. The vowel of the past tense is long except in *wässern* and *waschen*.

7. In this class the past tense has ie (that is, long i) except in *fangen*, *hangen*, and *gehen*, which have i (§ 8, 3). The past participle has the same vowel as the infinitive except with *gehen*. Thus, *fallen*, *fiel*, *gefallen*; *fangen*, *fling*, *gefangen*; *gehen*, *ging*, *gegangen*.

235. These classes are of historic interest but are of questionable practical value in grouping the modern strong verb, as not a few verbs have shifted their class, to say nothing of those which have become wholly weak. There are also more anomalies than those commented on above.

LIST OF STRONG VERBS

236. This list is intended to contain the verbs with strong forms in the German of to-day. It could not be made absolutely complete without becoming too complicated for ready use. Very rare forms are therefore left to the dictionary, where, in fact, the whole list belongs, rather than to the grammar.

The present infinitive, the past indicative and past subjunctive, and the past participle of every verb are given. The second and third person singular of the present indicative and the second person singular of the imperative are also given when they show peculiarities. A dash — indicates that the forms so marked are regular (that is, like those of the weak conjugation). Forms in parenthesis are unusual.

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
bäden <i>bake</i>	bädst, bädt	büd	büde	—	gebäden
	also weak except in past participle				
-bären only in gebären , which see					
befehlen <i>com-</i> <i>mand</i>	befiehst, befiehlt	befahl	befähle beföhle	befiehl	befohlen

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
besleichen see sleichen					
beginnen begin	— — —	begann	begänne begönne	— —	begonnen
beischen bite	— — —	biss	bisse	— —	gebissen
bergen conceal	birgst, birgt	barg	bärge bürge	birg	geborgen
bersten burst	birst, birst berstest, berstet	borst	bärste börste	birst	geborsten
bewegen induce	— — —	bewog	bewöge	— —	bewogen
in other senses weak					
biegen bend	— — —	bog	böge	— —	gebogen
bieten offer	(beutst, beut)	bot	böte	(beut)	geboten
binden bind	— — —	band	bände	— —	gebunden
bitten beg	— — —	bat	bäte	— —	gebeten
blasen blow	bläf(ef)t, bläst	blies	bliese	— —	geblasen
bleiben remain	— — —	blieb	bliebe	— —	geblieben
bleichen bleach	— — —	blich	blüche	— —	geblühen
intransitive often, transitive always, weak					
braten roast	brätst, brät	briet	briete	— —	gebraten
brechen break	bricht, bricht	brach	bräche	brich	gebrochen
-deihen only in gedeihen , which see					
-derben only in verderben , which see					
dingen engage	— — —	dang	dänge	— —	gedungen
also weak, commonly so in past subjunctive					
dreschen thresh	drisch(e)st, drischt	dresch	(dräsch)e	drisch	gedroschen
(drosch)			dräsch(e)		
-driehen only in verdriehen , which see					
dringen press	— — —	drang	dränge	— —	gedrungen
empfehlen rec-	empfiehlst, ommend	empfahl	empföhle	— —	empfohlen
empföhle					
essen eat	iss(es)t, ißt	ah	äße	iß	gegessen
fahren drive	fährst, fährt	fuhr	föhre	— —	gefahren
fallen fall	fällst, fällt	fiel	fiele	— —	gefallen
fangen catch	fängst, fängt	fang	finge	— —	gefangen
fechten fight	fichtst, ficht	föcht	föchte	ficht	gefochten
-fehlen only in befehlen and empfehlen , which see					
finden find	— — —	sand	sände	— —	gefunden
slechten twine	slichtst, slicht	slocht	slöchte	slicht	geslachten
sleichen apply	— — —	slik	sliſſe	— —	gesliffen

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
fliegen fly	(fliegt, fliegt)	flog	flöge	(fleug)	geflogen
fliehen flee	(flieucht, flieucht)	flöh	flöhe	(fleuch)	geflohen
fließen flow	(fließest, fließt)	flöß	flösse	(fleuß)	geflossen
fragen ask	(fragt, fragt)	(frug)	(früge)	—	gefragt
generally weak throughout					
fressen eat	triss(e)t, trist	fräz	fräze	triß	gefressen
frieren freeze	— —	fror	fröre	— —	gefroren
gären ferment	— —	gor	göre	— —	gegoren
gebären bear	gebierst, gebiert	gebar	gebäre	gebier	geboren
geben give	gibst, gibt	gab	gäbe	gib	gegeben
gediehen thrive	— —	gedieh	gediehe	— —	gediehen
gehen go	— —	ging	ginge	— —	gegangen
gelingen succeed	— —	gelang	gelänge	— —	gelungen
only in third person					
gelten be worth	giltst, gilt	galt	gälte	gilt	gegolten
genesen recover	— —	genas	genäse	— —	genesen
genießen enjoy	— —	genosß	genösse	— —	genossen
geschehen happen	geschieht	geschah	geschähe	wanting	geschehen
only in third person					
=geffen only in vergeffen , which see					
gewinnen win	— —	gewann	gewänne	— —	gewonnen
gießen pour	(geußest, geußt)	goß	gösse	(geuß)	gegossen
=ginnen only in beginnen , which see					
gleichen	— —	glich	gliche	— —	gegliehen
resemble					
transitive usually weak					
gleiten glide	— —	glitt	glitte	— —	geglitten
glimmen gleam	— —	glomm	glömme	— —	geglommen
graben dig	gräßt, gräßt	grub	grübe	— —	gegraben
greifen seize	— —	griff	griffe	— —	gegriffen
halten hold	hältst, hält	hielt	hielte	— —	gehalten
hangen hang	hängst, hängt	hing	hinge	— —	gehängen
hauen hew	— —	hieb	hiebe	— —	gehauen
heben raise	— —	hob	höbe	— —	gehoben
heißen bid, call	— —	hieß	hieße	— —	geheißen

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
helfen help	hilfst, hilft	half	hälfe, hülfe	hilf	geholfen
keifern chide	— —	hfif	hfiffe	— —	gefiffen
liesten choose	— —	hsos	hsöse	— —	geklossen
same word as fürern , but less common					
stemmen press	— —	homm	hömmme	— —	gellommen
usually weak except in hellen					
hieben cleave	— —	hslob	hslöbe	— —	gelloben
generally weak					
hlimmen climb	— —	homm	hömmme	— —	gellommen
hingen sound	— —	hsang	hsänge	— —	gefungen
hneisen pinch	— —	hniff	hniffe	— —	gelnissen
hneipen pinch	— —	hnipp	hnippe	— —	getuippen
often weak					
kommen come	(hömmst, hömmt)	ham	häme	— —	geliommen
hriechen creep	(kreuchst, kreucht)	hroch	kröche	(kreuch)	getrochen
fürern choose	— —	hor	höre	— —	gefahren
laden load	hädst, hadt	hud	hüde	— —	geladen
lassen let	häss(e)t, häft	hiez	hieße	— —	gelassen
laufen run	haußt, häuft	hief	hieße	— —	gelaufen
leiden suffer	— —	hitt	hitte	— —	gelitten
leihen lend	— —	hieh	hiehe	— —	geliehen
lesen read	hieß(e)t, hieft	has	häfe	lies	gelesen
liegen lie	— —	lag	läge	— —	gelegen
-ieren only in verlieren , which see					
-ingen only in gelingen and möhlingen , which see					
löschen extin-	lisch(e)st, licht	hösch	höschte	lisch	geloßchen
guish transitive weak					
lügen lie	(leugst, leugt)	log	läge	(leug)	gelogen
mahlen grind	(mhässt, mhäht) (muhl)	(mhüle)	(mhüle)	— —	gemahlen
very seldom strong except in past participle					
meiden avoid	— —	mied	miede	— —	gemieden
messeln milk	(milfst, milft)	moll	mölke	(milf)	gemolken
also weak					
messfen measure	miss(e)t, mißt	mahz	mäße	miß	gemessen
möhlingen fail	— —	möhlang	möh lange	— —	möhlingen
only in third person					

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
nehmen take	nimmst, nimmt nahm		nähme	nimm	genommen
-neßen only in <i>genesen</i> , which see					
-nischen only in <i>genießen</i> , which see					
pfeifen whistle	— — —	pifff	pifffe	— —	gepifffen
pflügen foster	— — —	pflög	pflöge	— —	gepflogen
usually weak		(pflag)			
preisen praise	— — —	pries	prieſe	— —	gepriſen
quellen gush	quillt, quillt	quoll	quölle	quill	gequollen
transitive weak					
rächen avenge	— — —	(räch)	(räche)	— —	gerächten
rarely strong except in past participle					
raten advise	rätſt, rät	riet	riete	— —	geraten
reiben rub	— — —	rieb	riebe	— —	gerieben
reihen tear	— — —	riß	riſſe	— —	geriſſen
reiten ride	— — —	ritt	ritte	— —	geritten
riechen smell	(reuchſt, reucht)	röch	röche	(reuch)	geröchen
ringen wring	— — —	rang	ränge	— —	gerungen
rinnen run	— — —	rann	ränne	— —	geronnen
rufen call	— — —	rief	rieſe	— —	gerufen
saufen drink	ſäuſt, ſäuſt	ſoff	ſöffe	— —	gefoffen
saugen suck	— — —	ſog	ſöge	— —	gefogen
ſchaffen create	— — —	ſchuf	ſchüſe	— —	geſchaffen
with other meanings usually weak					
ſchallen sound	— — —	ſcholl	ſchölle	— —	geſchollen
-ſchehen only in <i>geschehen</i> , which see					
ſcheiden part	— — —	ſchied	ſchiede	— —	geſchieden
ſcheinē shine	— — —	ſchien	ſchiene	— —	geſchienē
ſchelten scold	ſchiltſt, ſchilt	ſchalt	ſchälte	ſchilt	geſcholten
ſcheren shear	ſchierſt, ſchiert	ſchor	ſchöre	ſchier	geſchoren
ſchieben shove	— — —	ſchob	ſchöbe	— —	geſchoben
ſchießen shoot	(ſchueſt, ſchueſt)	ſchök	ſchöſſe	(ſchueß)	geſchöffen
ſchinden flay	— — —	ſchund	ſchündē	— —	geſchunden
ſchlafen sleep	ſchläft, ſchläft	ſchließ	ſchlieſe	— —	geſchlaſen
ſchlagen strike	ſchlägt, ſchlägt	ſchlug	ſchläge	— —	geſchlagen
ſchleichen sneak	— — —	ſchlich	ſchliche	— —	geſchlichen

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
schleisen whet	— — —	schliss	schlisse	— — —	geschlissen
schleiken slit	— — —	schlich	schlisse	— — —	geschlichen
schließen slip	— — —	schloß	schlösse	— — —	geschlossen
schließen shut	(schleust, schleuft)	schloß	schlösse	(schleuß)	geschlossen
schlingen sling	— — —	schlang	schlänge	— — —	geschlungen
schmeißen smite	— — —	schmik	schmisse	— — —	geschmitten
schmelzen melt	schmilzt, schmilzt	schmolz	schmolze	schmilz	geschmolzen
transitive usually weak					
schrauben snort	— — —	schnab	schnöbe	— — —	geschraubt
schneiden cut	— — —	schmitt	schritte	— — —	geschnitten
schneien snort	— — —	schnab	schnöbe	— — —	geschneitet
schrauben screw	— — —	schrob	schrobe	— — —	geschroben
schreiten be afraid	schridst, schridt	schrat	schräde	schrid	geschroden
transitive weak					
schreiben write	— — —	schrieb	schriebe	— — —	geschrieben
schreien scream	— — —	schrie	schree	— — —	geschrien
schreiten stride	— — —	schritt	schritte	— — —	geschritten
schwärzen sup-	(schwierst, purate)	schwör	schwöre	— — —	geschworen
schweigen be silent	— — —	schwieg	schwiege	— — —	geschwiegen
transitive occasionally weak					
schwellen swell	schwillt, schwilft	schwoll	schwölle	schwill	geschwollen
transitive weak					
schwimmen swim	— — —	schwamm	schwämme	— — —	geschwom- men
schwinden van-	— — —	schwand	schwände	— — —	geschwunden
isch	— — —	schwund	schwünde	— — —	
schwingen swing	— — —	schwang	schwänge	— — —	geschwungen
schwören swear	— — —	schwor	schwore	— — —	geschworen
schen see	siehst, sieht	sah	sähe	sieh	geschen
sein be	bin, bist, ist	war	wäre	sei	gewesen
sieden boil	— — —	sott	siedete	— — —	gesotten
also weak					

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
singen sing	— —	sang	sänge	—	gesungen
sinken sink	— —	sank	sänke	—	gesunken
sinnen think	— —	sann	sänne	—	gesonnen
—			sönne		
sitzen sit	— —	sah	sähe	—	gesessen
spielen spit	— —	spie	spiee	—	gespielen
spinnen spin	— —	spann	spänne	—	gesponnen
—			spönn		
spleißen split	— —	spliß	splisse	—	gesplissen
sprechen speak	sprichst, spricht	sprach	spräche	sprich	gesprochen
sprüchen sprout	(spreuhest, spreuhst)	spröh	sprösse	(spreuhs)	gesproffen
springen spring	— —	sprang	spränge	—	gesprungen
stechen stick	stichst, sticht	stach	stüche	stich	gestochen
stechen stick	stichst, sticht	stak	stüke	stich	gestochen
usually weak					
stehen stand	— —	stand	stände	—	gestanden
—			stünde		
stehlen steal	stiehlst, stiehlt	stahl	stähle	stiehl	gestohlen
—		stohl	stöhle		
steigen mount	— —	stieg	steige	—	gestiegen
sterben die	stirbst, stirbt	starb	stürbe	stirb	gestorben
—			stürbe		
stieben disperse	— —	stob	stöbe	—	gestoben
stinken stink	— —	stank	stänke	—	gestunken
—		stunk	stünke		
stoßen push	stöß(e)t, stößt	stieß	stieße	—	gestoßen
streichen stroke	— —	strich	striche	—	gestrichen
streiten contend	— —	stritt	stritte	—	gestritten
tun do	tust, tut	tat	täte	—	getan
tragen carry	trägst, trägt	trug	trüge	—	getragen
treffen hit	triffst trifft	traf	träfe	triff	getroffen
treiben drive	— —	trieb	triebe	—	getrieben

Infinitive	Present 2d and 3d Sing.	Past Ind.	Past Subj.	Imper.	Past Part.
treten <i>tread</i>	trittst, tritt	trat	träte	tritt	getreten
triefen <i>drip</i>	(treufst, treuft)	tröff	tröffe	(treuf)	getroffen
trinken <i>drink</i>		tranf	tränke	—	getrunken
		trunkl	trünkle		
trügen <i>deceive</i>	— —	trög	tröge	—	getrogen
verderben <i>spoil</i>		verdarbh	verdürbe	verdirb	verdorben
		verdirbt	verdürbe		
transitive weak					
verdrücken <i>vex</i>	— —	verdroß	verdrösse	—	verdroffen
vergessen <i>forget</i>		vergash	vergähe	vergiß	vergessen
		vergißt			
verlieren <i>lose</i>	— —	verlor	verlöre	—	verloren
wachsen <i>grow</i>	wächs(e)t, wächst	wuchs	wilchse	—	gewachsen
		wächst			
wägen <i>weigh</i>	— —	wog	wöge	—	gewogen
waschen <i>wash</i>	wäsch(e)t, wäscht	wusch	wüsche	—	gewaschen
		wäscht			
weben <i>weave</i>	— —	wob	wöbe	—	gewoben
-wegen only in <i>bewegen</i> , which see					
weichen <i>yield</i>	— —	wich	wiche	—	gewichen
weisen <i>show</i>	— —	wies	wiese	—	gewiesen
werben <i>sue</i>	wirbst, wirbt	warb	wärbe	wirb	geworben
		würde			
werden <i>become</i>	wirst, wird	ward	würde	—	geworden
		wurde			
werfen <i>throw</i>	wirfst, wirft	warf	wärfe	wirf	geworfen
		würfe			
wiegen <i>weigh</i>	— —	wog	wöge	—	gewogen
winden <i>wind</i>	— —	wand	wände	—	gewunden
-winnen only in <i>gewinnen</i> , which see					
zeihen <i>accuse</i>	— —	zieh	ziehe	—	gezichen
ziehen <i>draw</i>	(zeuchst, zeucht)	zog	zöge	(zeuch)	gezogen
zwingen <i>force</i>	— —	zwang	zwänge	—	gezwungen

Passive Voice

237. The passive is formed in German by combining the past participle of a verb with the auxiliary *werden*. The participle remains unchanged throughout the whole conjugation. *Werden* is inflected as in § 207 except that its past participle is *worden*, not *geworden*. Concerning the translations into English below see § 205.

238. Conjugation of the Passive.

Indicative	Subjunctive
	<i>Present</i>
<i>I am praised, etc.</i>	<i>I may be praised, etc.</i>
ich werde gelobt	ich werde gelobt
du wirst gelobt	du werdest gelobt
er wird gelobt	er werde gelobt
wir werden gelobt	wir werden gelobt
ihr werdet gelobt	ihr werdet gelobt
sie werden gelobt	sie werden gelobt
	<i>Past</i>
<i>I was praised, etc.</i>	<i>I might be praised, etc.</i>
ich wurde (or ward) gelobt	ich würde gelobt
du wurdest (or wardst) gelobt	du würdest gelobt
er wurde (or ward) gelobt	er würde gelobt
wir wurden gelobt	wir würden gelobt
ihr würdet gelobt	ihr würdet gelobt
sie wurden gelobt	sie würden gelobt
	<i>Present Perfect</i>
<i>I have been praised, etc.</i>	<i>I may have been praised, etc.</i>
ich bin gelobt worden	ich sei gelobt worden
du bist gelobt worden	du sei(e)st gelobt worden
er ist gelobt worden	er sei gelobt worden

Indicative

Subjunctive

*Present Perfect**I have been praised, etc.*

wir sind gelobt worden
 ihr seid gelobt worden
 sie sind gelobt worden

I may have been praised, etc.

wir seien gelobt worden
 ihr seiet gelobt worden
 sie seien gelobt worden

*Past Perfect**I had been praised, etc.*

ich war gelobt worden
 du warst gelobt worden
 er war gelobt worden

 wir waren gelobt worden
 ihr war(e)t gelobt worden
 sie waren gelobt worden

I might have been praised, etc.

ich wäre gelobt worden
 du wärest gelobt worden
 er wäre gelobt worden

 wir wären gelobt worden
 ihr wäret gelobt worden
 sie wären gelobt worden

*Future**I shall be praised, etc.*

ich werde gelobt werden
 du wirst gelobt werden
 er wird gelobt werden

 wir werden gelobt werden
 ihr werdet gelobt werden
 sie werden gelobt werden

I shall be praised, etc.

ich werde gelobt werden
 du werdest gelobt werden
 er werde gelobt werden

 wir werden gelobt werden
 ihr werdet gelobt werden
 sie werden gelobt werden

*Future Perfect**I shall have been praised, etc.*

ich werde gelobt worden sein
 du wirst gelobt worden sein
 er wird gelobt worden sein

I shall have been praised, etc.

ich werde gelobt worden sein
 du werdest gelobt worden sein
 er werde gelobt worden sein

Indicative

Subjunctive

Future Perfect

<i>I shall have been praised, etc.</i>	<i>I shall have been praised, etc.</i>
wir werden gelobt worden sein	wir werden gelobt worden sein
ihr werdet gelobt worden sein	ihr werdet gelobt worden sein
sie werden gelobt worden sein	sie werden gelobt worden sein

Past Future (Subjunctive)

<i>I should be praised, etc.</i>
ich würde gelobt werden
du würdest gelobt werden
er würde gelobt werden
wir würden gelobt werden
ihr würdet gelobt werden
sie würden gelobt werden

Past Future Perfect

<i>I should have been praised, etc.</i>
ich würde gelobt worden sein
du würdest gelobt worden sein
er würde gelobt worden sein
wir würden gelobt worden sein
ihr würdet gelobt worden sein
sie würden gelobt worden sein

Imperative

be praised

(werde gelobt werdet gelobt) or sei gelobt seid gelobt
 werden Sie gelobt seien Sie gelobt

Present Infinitive

gelobt werden *to be praised*

Past Infinitive

gelobt worden sein *to have been praised*

Present Participle

(See subsection 2 below)

Past Participle

gelobt *praised*

Future Participle

zu lobend *to be praised, etc.*

1. The imperative with werden is rare, the forms with sein being in almost universal use; an infinitive with sein is also very common. The forms with sein are survivals

from the time when both *sein* and *werden* were used to make the passive. See § 494.

2. A present participle (*gelobt werbend*) is so exceedingly rare that it is entirely omitted from the paradigm, as is also a past participle with *werden* (*gelobt worden*).

3. For the meaning and use of the future passive participle (also called the gerundive), as in *die zu fürchtende Gefahr* *the danger to be feared*, see § 583, 4.

4. For the past participle in some idiomatic constructions akin to the passive see § 586, 3 a.

5. A passive is formed in German not only with transitive verbs but also with some intransitives. See §§ 491, 492.

QUASI-PASSIVE

239. German has also the full inflection of *sein* with the past participle of a verb. For lack of a better term this may be called the quasi-passive. It runs as follows:

Indicative

Subjunctive

Present

I am compelled, etc.

I may be compelled, etc.

ich bin gezwungen

ich sei gezwungen

Past

I was compelled, etc.

I might be compelled, etc.

ich war gezwungen

ich wäre gezwungen

Perfect

I have been compelled, etc.

I may have been compelled, etc.

ich bin gezwungen gewesen

ich sei gezwungen gewesen

The rest of the inflection can be easily supplied after the manner of the forms just given.

1. In their regular modern use these forms express the state or condition of the subject, but they are often confounded with the real passive or substituted for it. See §§ 493, 494.

VERBS WITH INSEPARABLE PREFIXES

240. The prefixes *be*, *ent* (or *emp*), *er*, *ge*, *ver*, and *zer* are always inseparable and unaccented, as is also *miß* except in rare instances (for which see § 498). For their meaning see § 668. *Wider*, when used as a verbal prefix, is also inseparable. *Durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *um*, *unter*, *wieder*, and *voll* are sometimes separable, sometimes inseparable; for details see §§ 500–502. For compound prefixes see § 503. If conjugated with an inseparable prefix, the verb receives the accent; the past participle does not take *ge*; and *zu*, if used with the infinitive, must precede the prefix. Otherwise the inflection of the verb is not altered, though in some cases the auxiliary, *haben* or *sein*, is changed owing to a change in the meaning of the verb caused by the prefix.

1. If *ge* is the prefix of the verb, it is, of course, kept in the past participle; as, *gestanden* from *gestehen*. This is the same in form as the participle of the simple verb; as, *gestanden* from *stehen*. The sense must show which participle is intended.

241. Conjugation of an Inseparable Verb with *haben*:
bewohnen *occupy*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *bewohnen*, *bewohnte*, *bewohnt*

Indicative

ich bewohne

Subjunctive

Present

ich bewohne

Past

ich bewohnte

ich bewohnte

Present Perfect

ich habe bewohnt

ich habe bewohnt

Past Perfect

ich hatte bewohnt

ich hätte bewohnt

Future

ich werde bewohnen

ich werde bewohnen

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Future Perfect</i>	
ich werde bewohnt haben	ich werde bewohnt haben
<i>Past Future</i>	
	ich würde bewohnen
<i>Past Future Perfect</i>	
	ich würde bewohnt haben
<i>Imperative</i>	
bewohne	bewohn(e)t
bewohnen Sie	
Present Infinitive	Past Infinitive
bewohnen, zu bewohnen	bewohnt haben
Present Participle	Past Participle
bewohnend	bewohnt

242. Conjugation of an Inseparable Verb with *sein*:
entfliehen *flee*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: entfliehen, entfloh, entflohen	
Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Present</i>	
ich entfliehe	ich entfliehe
<i>Past</i>	
ich entfloh	ich entflöhe
<i>Present Perfect</i>	
ich bin entflohen	ich sei entflohen
<i>Past Perfect</i>	
ich war entflohen	ich wäre entflohen
<i>Future</i>	
ich werde entfliehen	ich werde entfliehen

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Future Perfect</i>	
ich werde entflohen sein	ich werde entflohen sein
<i>Past Future</i>	
ich würde entfliehen	
<i>Past Future Perfect</i>	
	ich würde entflohen sein
Imperative	
entflieh(e)	entfliehet
entfliehen Sie	
Present Infinitive	Past Infinitive
entfliehen, zu entfliehen	entflohen sein
Present Participle	Past Participle
entfliehend	entflohen

VERBS WITH SEPARABLE PREFIXES

243. A number of words, mostly adverbs and prepositions in their ordinary relations, are used with verbs as separable prefixes. For details about these words see §§ 499–503. They have the chief accent and sometimes precede and sometimes follow the verb. Owing to their influence upon the meaning of the compound, they may cause a change in the auxiliary, *haben* or *sein*, used in compound tenses. Otherwise they have no effect on the conjugation of the verb. The only thing to be considered is the varying position of the separable prefix.

244. Conjugation of a Separable Verb with *haben*: *anfangen begin*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *anfangen, fing an, angefangen*

Indicative	Subjunctive
<i>Present</i>	
ich sang an	ich fange an

Indicative

Subjunctive

Past

ich sing an ich singe an

Present Perfect

ich habe angefangen ich habe angefangen

Past Perfect

ich hatte angefangen ich hätte angefangen

Future

ich werde anfangen ich werde anfangen

Future Perfect

ich werde angefangen haben ich werde angefangen haben

Past Future

ich würde anfangen

Past Future Perfect

ich würde angefangen haben

Imperative

fang(e) an fanget an
fangen Sie an

Present Infinitive

anfangen, anzufangen

Past Infinitive

angefangen haben

Present Participle

anfangend

Past Participle

angefangen

i. The order in questions, etc., is: fange ich an, singe ich an,
habe ich angefangen, etc. For the order when the separable
prefix is the first word in a clause see § 633, e.

245. Conjugation of a Separable Verb with *sein*: einwandern *immigrate*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: einwandern, wanderte ein, eingewandert

Indicative

Subjunctive

Present

ich wandre ein

ich wand(e)re ein

Past

ich wanderte ein

ich wanderte ein

Present Perfect

ich bin eingewandert

ich sei eingewandert

Past Perfect

ich war eingewandert

ich wäre eingewandert

Future

ich werde einwandern

ich werde einwandern

Future Perfect

ich werde eingewandert sein

ich werde eingewandert sein

Past Future

ich würde einwandern

Past Future Perfect

ich würde eingewandert sein

Imperative

wand(e)re ein

wandert ein

wandern Sie ein

Present Infinitive

einwandern, einzuwandern

Past Infinitive

eingewandert sein

Present Participle

einwandernd

Past Participle

eingewandert

1. See § 244, 1, for the order in questions, etc.

246. Position of Prefix after Connective. If the verb stands in a subordinate clause after a conjunction or other

connective, the prefix regularly precedes the verb in the present and past. The whole verb phrase then has the transposed order of words (§ 636) in all tenses. Thus:

Indicative	Subjunctive
	<i>Present</i>

dass ich anfange

dass ich anfange

dass ich einwandle

dass ich einwand(e)re

Past	Subjunctive
	<i>Past</i>

dass ich anfing

dass ich anfinge

dass ich einwanderte

dass ich einwanderte

Present Perfect	Subjunctive
	<i>Present Perfect</i>

dass ich angefangen habe

dass ich angefangen habe

dass ich eingewandert bin

dass ich eingewandert sei

The remaining forms of the indicative and subjunctive can be readily supplied after the manner of those given.

REFLEXIVE VERBS

247. A reflexive verb always has as its object a pronoun in the accusative case referring to the subject. For the first and second person this object is the accusative of the personal pronoun corresponding to the subject; for the third person it is *sich* (§ 155). A reflexive verb always has *haben* for its auxiliary. The conjugation of the verb presents no new features. The reflexive pronoun stands sometimes before and sometimes after the verb, following the ordinary rules for the position of a pronoun object (§ 642, 1).

248. Conjugation of a Reflexive Verb: sich freuen rejoice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *sich freuen, freute sich, gefreut*

Indicative	Subjunctive
	<i>Present</i>

ich freue mich

ich freue mich

du freust dich

du freuest dich

er freut sich

er freue sich

Indicative

wir freuen uns
ihr freut euch
sie freuen sich

Subjunctive

Present

wir freuen uns
ihr freuet euch
sie freuen sich

Past

ich freute mich

ich freute mich

Present Perfect

ich habe mich gefreut

ich habe mich gefreut

Past Perfect

ich hatte mich gefreut

ich hätte mich gefreut

Future

ich werde mich freuen

ich werde mich freuen

Future Perfect

ich werde mich gefreut haben

ich werde mich gefreut haben

Past Future

ich würde mich freuen

Past Future Perfect

ich würde mich gefreut haben

Imperative

freue dich
freuen Sie sich

freu(e)t euch

Present Infinitive

sich freuen

Past Infinitive

sich gefreut haben

Present Participle

sich freuend

Past Participle

(sich) gefreut

1. The infinitives and participles are given with *sich* in the paradigm. They may, of course, have as their objects the pronouns of the other persons (mich freuen, dich freuen, etc.).

A reflexive pronoun can accompany the past participle only in the compound tenses. See § 584, 3.

249. Dative and Genitive Objects. A few verbs take the dative and a smaller number the genitive of a reflexive pronoun as their object. Though such verbs are, strictly speaking, not reflexives, they are treated here as a matter of convenience. The inflection of the present indicative of *schmeicheln*, which governs the dative, and of *schonen*, which governs the genitive in poetic and elevated style, will sufficiently illustrate the manner of conjugation:

ich schmeichle mir	<i>I flatter myself, etc.</i>	ich schone meiner	<i>I spare myself, etc.</i>
du schmeichelst dir		du schonest deiner	
er schmeichelt sich		er schont seiner	
wir schmeicheln uns		wir schonen unser	
ihr schmeichelt euch		ihr schont euer	
sie schmeicheln sich		sie schonen ihrer	

250. *Selbst* with Reflexives. The indeclinable *selbst* accompanies the reflexive pronoun only when the latter is to be made emphatic or some ambiguity is to be avoided. See § 363. The regular English use of *myself, himself*, etc., in this connection should not lead to erroneous conclusions about the German construction.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

251. Impersonal verbs can be used only in the third person singular. Their conjugation offers no new features. Thus, from *donnern* to *thunder* come *es donnert*, *es donnerete*, *es hat gebonnert*, etc. Nearly all the impersonals have *haben* as their auxiliary; only a very few have *sein*. Unlike English, German can under certain conditions use the third person singular of the passive (§ 492) and also of some reflexives (§ 504, 7) impersonally without change in their inflection. For the use of a subject with impersonal verbs see § 508.

252. Impersonals with Objects. A number of German impersonals, sometimes with and sometimes without a sub-

ject, take an object. The verb remains in the third person singular, the object indicating the person actually concerned. Thus:

mirh dürfstet, esdürfstet mirh	<i>I am</i>	mir träumt, esträumt mir	<i>I dream, etc.</i>
dichdürfstet, esdürfstet dich		dir träumt, esträumt dir	
ihndürfstet, esdürfstet ihn		ihm träumt, esträumt ihm	
unsdürfstet, esdürfstet uns		uns träumt, esträumt uns	
euchdürfstet, esdürfstet euch		euch träumt, esträumt euch	
siedürfstet, esdürfstet sie		ihnen träumt, esträumt ihnen	

The past (*mirh dürfstete, esdürfstete mirh*) and the other tenses are used in the same way with the different pronouns.

PARTICLES

253. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are often classed together as *particles*. Their further treatment is left to the Syntax with the exception of the one topic of the comparison of adverbs.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

254. Adjectives used as adverbs can mostly be compared. Other adverbs, with a few exceptions, do not admit of comparison. The rules for the comparison of adjectives by means of *er* and (*e*)*st* apply also to adverbs. See § 136. The bare superlative is seldom used adverbially. A prepositional phrase (commonly introduced by *am*) is regularly substituted for it; as, *am schönsten, aufs schönste*. See § 590.

255. Irregular Comparison. The statements about adjectives irregularly compared apply also to the same words used as adverbs. See § 138. Notice also the following additional words:

Wohl well usually has *besser* and *best* for its comparative and superlative, though it may have *wohler* and *wohlst*.

Bald soon commonly substitutes *eher* and *ehest* for *bälter* and *bäldest* or *balder* and *baldest*.

Gern willingly can form the regular comparative and superlative *gerner* and *gernst*, but they are generally dropped in favor of *lieber* and *liebst*.

Oft often has *öfter* and *öftest*. Forms without the modified vowel rarely occur, but *öfters* for *öfter* is common. *Öfterer* and *öfterst* are obsolete.

1. The superlatives given in this list regularly appear only in prepositional phrases, as explained in § 254.

256. Adverbs, like adjectives, are also occasionally compared by means of *mehr* and *am meisten* and are subject to the so-called descending comparison. See these topics under adjectives, §§ 142, 143.

257. The incidental references in the foregoing pages to the fuller inflections of older periods will serve to show that German, like all other languages, has undergone, and is still undergoing, change. The tendency throughout has been towards simplification. Some inflectional endings have entirely disappeared; others, once different, have now become alike. In the course of its long history German has, on the whole, been slowly gaining in efficiency as an instrument for the expression of human thought. What it has lost through phonetic decay it has more than won back through the increased definiteness and effectiveness of its syntactical relations.

PART II

SYNTAX

Some of the illustrative German sentences given in the Syntax have been shortened by the omission of words not essential to the meaning. This has made a slight change in the order of words advisable in a very few cases. A pronoun has occasionally been substituted for a long subject. The spelling has been made to conform to the present official rules. Otherwise there are no intentional changes.

ARTICLES

258. Agreement. The gender, number, and case of both the articles are determined by the noun they modify. For the article with a substantive adjective see § 306.

259. Substitutes for the Articles. As in English, other pronominal adjectives, such as demonstratives, possessives, and indefinites, often modify a noun, generally to the exclusion of the articles. This fact is mentioned here merely as a necessary qualification of the rules given below for the use of the articles.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

260. Contraction. The article *der* is distinguished from the same word used as a demonstrative adjective (§ 377) only by the difference in force. The demonstrative is emphatic and suffers no contraction. The article is relatively unemphatic and frequently coalesces with a preposition and sometimes with other words.

1. The ordinary combinations with prepositions are: *am*, *beim*, *im*, *vom*, *zum*, from *dem*; *ans*, *aufs*, *durchs*, *fürs*, *ins*, from *das*; *zur*, from *der*, dative feminine singular. Colloquially they are more common than the uncontracted words, and they abound in all styles of literature. Less

common, though frequent in the spoken language, are contractions of *dem* and *das* with dissyllabic prepositions, such as *hinterm*, *überm*, *unterm*, *hinters*, *übers*, *unters*, etc.

2. Less usual contractions with a preposition, such as *übern* for *über den*, *aufm* for *auf dem*, *zun* for *zu den*, etc., are wholly colloquial. In phrases like *an Kopf at the head*, *in Stall into the stable*, which also belong only to colloquial style, we have *den* contracted with a preposition, not the omission of the article. These contractions are also written *an'n*, *in'n*, etc.

3. The shortening of *das* and *des* to 's is not uncommon in colloquial style after other words than prepositions; as, *komm her*, *wenn du's Herz hast come here if you have the courage*. Contractions of other forms are much less usual.

Uses of *der*

261. In the main the use of the definite article is the same in German as in English, but there are some important differences which are considered in the paragraphs below. For this article with proper names see §§ 282-286.

1. **Generic Article.** The definite article accompanies a noun used in its widest or most general sense to indicate the whole of a class or kind, or all of a material; as, *der Tee schmeckt mir nicht I do not like tea*; *das Tier hat auch Vernunft animals too have reason*; *das Eisen ist das nützlichste Metall iron is the most useful metal*.

(a) The English construction in *animals have reason* or *an animal has reason* should therefore not be carried over into German, though the latter language does occasionally use the indefinite article or the plural in the English way.

(b) The presence of the definite article in German therefore often indicates *all of*, its absence *some* or *part of*. See § 425, 1.

2. **With Abstract Nouns.** Akin to the preceding usage is the employment of *der* with abstract nouns; thus, *die Tugend virtue*; *der Tod death*; *der Glaube faith*; *dieser Sturm*

in der Natur *this storm in nature*; er liebte die Musik sehr *he was very fond of music*. But see § 262, 1.

3. **With Infinitives.** The definite article commonly stands before the infinitive used as a noun; as, *das Lernen ging ihm sehr schwer von statten he found it hard to learn*; *das Lachen erhält uns vernünftiger als der Verdruss laughter keeps us more reasonable than vexation*; *sie war müde vom vielen Gehen she was tired from much walking*.

4. **For Possessives.** The definite article often takes the place of a possessive adjective. This usage is very common, almost the rule, when it can cause no uncertainty about the possessor, or when the dative of the possessor (§ 455, 1) is present. Thus, *ich schüttelte mit dem Kopfe I shook my head*; *sie hatte die Blumen in der Hand she had the flowers in her hand*; *du brichst mir das Herz you are breaking my heart*.

(a) Here belongs also the use of the definite article before words for *father, mother*, and other members of the family; as, *die liebe Mutter lässt dich grüßen our dear mother sends her greetings*; *wo ist der Vater where is father?* *dem Onkel to uncle*. See also § 283.

5. **Distributive.** German has the definite article in a distributive sense where English has the indefinite; as, *den Monat 6 Taler six talers a month*; *zehn Pfennige das Pfund ten pfennigs a pound*; *sechs Tage in der Woche six days a week*.

6. **For Case.** The definite article is often inserted to make the case clear; as, in *Ermangelung der Läden for lack of shutters*; *ich ziehe Wasser dem Weine vor I prefer water to wine*.

7. The definite article is also often found in prepositional phrases and in other constructions where it would be omitted in English. The details of such usage must be learned by observation, as they are too diverse for profitable classification here.

Omission of der

262. 1. Partitive. The article is not used with names of materials when taken in an indefinite sense, that is, in

speaking of an indefinite mass of a substance, some or part of it. The unaccompanied noun often has the same force in English; as, *they have salt, potatoes, and flour*. English is, however, much more disposed than German to prefix words like *some*, *any*, etc., to bring out the partitive meaning (§ 425, 1). Collective nouns conform to this rule. Abstract nouns also often appear without the article in analogous constructions. Thus, *sie bringt euch Beeren* *she is bringing you (some) berries*; *zur Nacht ist neuer Schnee gefallen* *fresh snow fell in the night*; *preußisches Fußvolk drang in die Stadt ein* (*some of the*) *Prussian infantry entered the city*; *Gold ist schwerer als Blei* *gold is heavier than lead*; *haben Sie Barmherzigkeit mit mir* *have pity on me*.

2. **With Genitive.** Both English and German regularly omit the article if the noun is modified by a preceding genitive; as, *Frankreichs weite Erde* *France's extensive domain*; *in Ihres Nachbars Garten* *in your neighbor's garden*.

3. The article is also omitted in a multitude of cases, sometimes where it would be omitted in English, but more commonly where either the definite or indefinite article would be retained. The omission is at times a survival from an older period when the article played a less important part than now. Still more often it is due to the feeling that the article is not needed for definiteness, or to poetic license, or to valid rhetorical reasons, or to mere caprice. Sometimes the omission is even contrary to the present tendencies of the language; occasionally the double construction, with or without the article, is current. Many of these cases can only be explained individually. The following is a classification of part of them:

(a) Words in pairs or series; thus, *Haus und Hof* *house and home*; *Baum und Gras und Flieg' und Wurm* *trees and grass and flies and worms*.

(b) For conciseness' sake in proverbs, short and pithy sayings, commands, definitions of words, titles of books, etc. Thus, *vor Recht Gewalt* *might before right*; *Gewehr ab* *order arms*; *Kopf* *bedeutete ursprünglich Trinkschale (the word)* *Kopf originally meant a drinking vessel*; *Geschichte der deutschen Literatur (A)* *History of German Literature*.

(c) In a number of set expressions, mostly prepositional phrases; as, *in Zukunft* *in the future*; *in Gegenwart des Kaisers* *in the presence of*

the emperor; zu Fuß on foot; bei Tag by day; Schreiber dieses the writer of this.

(d) In certain formal or technical expressions with such words as *besagt, folgend, etc.; as, besagter Herausgeber the said editor; von der Witterung melde ich Folgendes about the weather I report the following.*

(e) When the noun is essentially a separable verbal prefix; as, *Platz nehmen, stattfinden, etc. See § 499, 3.*

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

263. Contraction. As a numeral *ein* is emphatic and suffers no contraction. As the indefinite article it is relatively unemphatic and very often drops the diphthong *ei* in the spoken language and not infrequently in literature; thus, *ich griff 'nen Kirschbaum I grasped a cherry tree; 'n bisschen Schwindel a slight dizziness; 'ne Blume a flower.* *Einem* is even occasionally contracted to '*m* and *einen* to '*n*; as, *jetzt hat man mal 'n Menschen gefunden now I have really found a human being.*

Uses of *ein*

264. The use of the indefinite article is, in the main, the same in German as in English and needs no discussion here, though there are individual cases of variation from the English construction which must be learned by observation.

1. *Ein* may have the meaning of *some, any, such; as, beruft dich ein Geschäft in Cyperns Hafen does some business call you to the harbor of Cyprus? in einer Stellung in such an attitude.* Notice also its use with nouns for food and drink; as, *eine Selters a bottle of Selters water; bei einem vertraulichen Kaffee over a chummy cup of coffee; ein trocknes Brot a loaf of dry bread.*

2. The old use of *ein* instead of *der* with nouns referring to officials still lingers on; as, *von einem hohen Rat by the honorable (town) council.*

3. For *ein* with proper names see § 287.

Omission of ein

265. The indefinite article is not commonly used with a noun in predicate or in apposition after *als* if the noun indicates rank, office, nationality, and the like; as, *er ist Major he is a major*; *er war Zahnarzt he was a dentist*; *ich will als Schiffsjunge nach Amerika I want to go to America as a cabin boy*.

1. The omission of the indefinite article follows, in general, the same rules in German as in English. For its omission from prepositional phrases, set expressions, and the like see § 262, 3.

REPETITION OF THE ARTICLES

266. If the definite article is used with the first of two or more singular nouns of differing gender in the same construction, it should be repeated before each of the following nouns. It should also be repeated if the nouns are partly singular and partly plural, whether they are of the same gender or not. It need not be repeated if the nouns are in the singular and of the same gender, nor if they are in the plural, though of different genders. These rules apply to the indefinite article also, except, of course, for the plural. Thus, *die allmächtige Zeit und das ewige Schicksal almighty time and eternal fate*; *die Erben, ein Schwiegersohn und eine Tochter the heirs, a son-in-law and a daughter*; *ein kurzer Augenblick der Bonne und des Entzückens a brief moment of delight and rapture*; *der Strom, das Meer, das Salz gehört dem König the river, the sea, the salt belong to the king*; *eines Tages half er dem Vater und den Brüdern fischen one day he helped his father and brothers fish*; *in der Bildhauerei und Malerei in sculpture and painting*; *ein großer Skandal und Ärger a great scandal and vexation*; *in dem Gewirre der Straßen, Kanäle und Häuser in the tangle of streets, canals, and houses*.

1. Exceptions to these rules are not uncommon in poetry and older prose and in careless speech; as, die Mutter und Schwestern *my mother and sisters*; ein Schwert und Fahne tragend *bearing a sword and a banner*.

2. Even with the same gender and number, German may repeat the article before all the nouns in the same construction, and it must do so if it is necessary to individualize them. Thus, ein andächtiger Ritter und Pilger (*a pious knight and pilgrim*) and der Kaiser und König (*the emperor and king*) refer to one person only, but the repetition of the article here would clearly indicate two persons. This use of the article is the same in English and in German.

3. Not infrequently the repetition of the article is avoided by omitting it entirely, particularly in poetry and in very concise prose, as in proverbs, commands, and the like.

4. As the rules for the repetition of the article are based upon its inflection for gender and number, they also apply to adjectives and to possessives and other pronominals.

NOUNS

GENDER

267. The gender of German nouns is in part natural (that is, based on difference of sex) and in part grammatical. No general statements about it are of much practical value. The gender of nouns ending in a few of the terminations can be known certainly; otherwise, all rules have numerous exceptions.

Gender According to Meaning

268. Living Beings. Here the natural gender prevails for the most part; that is, words for males are masculines, those for females are feminine. Thus, der Mann *the man*, der Hahn *the cock*, die Mutter *the mother*, die Henne *the hen*. Among the exceptions may be noted:

1. Neuter are Weib and Frauenzimmer *woman* and all diminutives in *chen* and *lein*; as, Fräulein *unmarried woman*, Miss, Mädchen *girl*. A few of the diminutives occasionally have the natural gender.

2. Nouns denoting living beings without special reference to sex may be of any gender; as, der Mensch *man*, any human being, die Person *the person*, das Kind *the child*, der Fisch *the fish*, das Schaf *the sheep*.

269. Inanimate Objects. Nouns denoting inanimate objects may be of any gender:

1. Masculine are the names of seasons, months, days of the week, points of the compass, and stones; as, *Winter winter*, *Juli July*, *Freitag Friday*, *Osten east*, *Marmor marble*.

2. Feminine are the names of trees, plants, flowers, and fruits; as, *Ulme elm*, *Rose rose*, *Birne pear*.

(a) German rivers are feminine, with a few notable exceptions such as *der Rhein*, *Nedar*, *Main*. Rivers of other countries are said to be mainly masculine. Words used as names of ships may keep their customary gender, as *der Sultan*, but popular speech is more disposed to make them all feminine, as *die Deutschland*.

3. Neuter are names of towns and countries, materials, letters of the alphabet, many collectives (especially those with the prefix *Ge*), and other parts of speech used as nouns (§ 280); as, *Norwegen Norway*, *Wien Vienna*, *Eisen iron*, *A (the letter) a*, *Gebirge mountain chain*, *Lächeln smiling*.

Gender According to Form

270. The statements below are mostly subject to many exceptions, though a few of the suffixes, as stated, do indicate an invariable gender. For further details about the suffixes see §§ 672, 673.

1. Masculine are most monosyllables derived by vowel gradation (§ 671); nouns in *er*, *ler*, and *ner*, denoting the agent; those in *el*, denoting the instrument; those in *em*, *ich*, *ig*, *ing*, *ling*, and *rich*; those in *en*, if not infinitives. Thus, *Spruch saying*, *Jäger hunter*, *Händler dealer*, *Gärtner gardner*, *Hobel lever*, *Atem breath*, *Fittich pinion*, *Reisig twigs*, *Hering herring*, *Böbling pupil*, *Gänserich gander*, *Daumen thumb*.

2. Feminine are most nouns in *e* and *t*; all in *ei*, *in*, *heit*, *keit*, *schaft*, and *ung*. Thus, *Güte goodness*, *Gruft vault*, *Zauberei magic*, *Königin queen*, *Freiheit freedom*, *Sparsamkeit economy*, *Freundschaft friendship*, *Ordnung order*. Abstract nouns, as a class, are therefore feminine.

3. Neuter are diminutives in *chen* and *lein*; infinitives used as nouns; most nouns with the prefix *Ge*, with or without the suffix *e*; all in *tel* and nearly all in *sal*, *sel*, *tum*, and *nis*. Thus, *Bäumchen little tree*, *Fräulein unmarried woman*, *Miss*, *Gewerbe trade*, *Gemehr weapon*, *Wiertel quarter*, *Schicksal fate*, *Rätsel riddle*, *Fürstentum principality*, *Hindernis hindrance*.

Gender of Foreign Nouns

271. Borrowed words are supposed to keep the gender that they had in the language from which they come. The exceptions are, however, very numerous. Many, especially those fully naturalized, have changed

their gender to agree with German words of similar meaning or form. Other influences have also been at work. As English words have no grammatical gender, they take their gender in German from some fancied or real resemblance in meaning or form to German nouns. French nouns may be neuter in German, though French has no neuter. The knowledge of the derivation of a noun is therefore of little practical value in determining its gender, nor is the gender of a borrowed noun necessarily the same in all parts of Germany or in all the course of its history.

Gender of Compound Nouns

272. Compound nouns having a noun as their last member take the gender of that member; as, *der Baumstamm* *the tree trunk*, *die Baumschule* *the nursery*, *das Baummesser* *the pruning knife*. The exceptions are comparatively few:

1. Nouns with *mut* as their last member are regularly masculine, but *Anmut grace*, *Demut humility*, *Großmut magnanimity*, *Sanftmut gentleness*, *Schwermut dejection*, *Wehmut sadness*, and possibly one or two others are regularly feminine. They have no plural and, like other feminines, add no case endings in the singular. The syllable *mut* in these compounds represents two older words, *muot*, *m.*, and *muoti*, *f.* The modern noun *Mut mind* is masculine.

2. Nouns in *teil* are regularly masculine, but *Gegenteil opposite*, *Erbteil inheritance*, and one or two others are neuter. All the fractionals in *tel* or *teiI* (§ 673, 12) are also neuter. The word *Teil part* is now generally masculine, though it is still commonly neuter in the meaning of *share, allotted portion*.

3. A few other exceptions are the feminines *Antwort answer*, *Heirat marriage*, and the masculines *Mittwoch Wednesday*, *Abföhlau horror*. The list could be slightly lengthened by the addition of some less common words. See the dictionary for the declension of these words.

273. Compound nouns of which the last member is not a noun are not numerous. Those which denote persons commonly follow the rules for natural gender; those not denoting persons are given gender more arbitrarily. Thus, *der Taugenichts the good-for-nothing*, *der Rehraus the final dance*, *die Handvoll the handful*, *das Vergißmeinnicht the forget-me-not*. See the dictionary for the declension of these words.

Variation in Gender

274. Some nouns have more than one gender. These variations are due to several causes, difference of dialect being one of the most effective. For borrowed nouns see end of § 271. The nouns with variable gender may be grouped as follows, only a few illustrations being given for each group:

1. The noun may have different genders without change of form or meaning. Thus:

Bündel, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , bundle	Knäuel, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , ball (<i>of thread</i>)
Butter, <i>f.</i> , <i>m.</i> , butter	Meter, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , meter
Floß, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , raft	Ort, <i>m.</i> , <i>n.</i> , place
Honig, <i>m.</i> , <i>n.</i> , honey	Pult, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , desk
Kamin, <i>m.</i> , <i>n.</i> , fireplace	Schrecken, <i>m.</i> , <i>n.</i> , terror
Klafter, <i>f.</i> , <i>m.</i> , <i>n.</i> , fathom	Tuch, <i>n.</i> , <i>m.</i> , cloth

2. The noun may have different forms with different genders but without difference of meaning. Thus:

Badē, <i>m.</i> , Bade, <i>f.</i> , cheek	Schürz, <i>m.</i> , Schürze, <i>f.</i> , apron
Karren, <i>m.</i> , Karre, <i>f.</i> , cart	Trupp, <i>m.</i> , Truppe, <i>f.</i> , troop
Quell, <i>m.</i> , Quelle, <i>f.</i> , spring	Zeh, <i>m.</i> , Zehe, <i>f.</i> , toe

3. The same noun may have different genders with different meaning but with the same form in the nominative singular. Thus:

Band, <i>n.</i> , band, bond	<i>m.</i> , volume
Erbe, <i>m.</i> , heir	<i>n.</i> , inheritance
Flur, <i>f.</i> , field	<i>m.</i> , hall
Schild, <i>m.</i> , shield	<i>n.</i> , sign
See, <i>f.</i> , sea	<i>m.</i> , lake
Teil, <i>m.</i> , part	<i>n.</i> , share

4. Nouns of different origin and different gender may have come to have the same form in the nominative singular. Thus:

Bulle, <i>m.</i> , bull	<i>f.</i> , bull (= edict)
Messer, <i>m.</i> , measurer	<i>n.</i> , knife
Tor, <i>m.</i> , fool	<i>n.</i> , gate

NUMBER

275. Nouns have, as a rule, both the singular and plural. Some are, however, used only in the singular; as, Glanz, *f.*,

brightness, Heu, n., hay. Others, though they are comparatively few, are used only in the plural; as, *Eltern parents, Masern measles.* Such words do not necessarily correspond in German and English; thus, sing. *Asche, f., ashes;* pl. *Ferien vacation.*

1. Abstract nouns are commonly used only in the singular, but those that can take on a concrete meaning or express a number of different kinds or activities may have a plural; as, *die Freuden, Schönheiten, Tugenden the joys, beauties, virtues.* Certain set phrases, such as *Euer Gnaden your grace, mit Ehren with honor, etc.*, are survivals from the period when abstract nouns formed a plural, not necessarily with concrete meaning, more freely than now.

2. Names of materials, as in English, are ordinarily in the singular, but most of them can form a plural meaning *kinds of*; as, *Hölzer woods, kinds of wood, Salze salts* (in chemistry).

3. A few words, such as *Ostern Easter, Weihnachten Christmas, Pfingsten Pentecost*, which originally referred to a period of time (*the Easter season, etc.*) are regularly plural. The three mentioned are, however, often used as singulars, with varying gender.

4. For nouns which make a plural by forming a compound see § 121, 6, and for plurals in *männer* or *leute* see § 121, 7. For variant plurals see § 123 and also comments under each of the declensions.

Singular for the Plural

276. In general, the English and German practice in the use of the singular and plural is the same. In some constructions, however, the German commonly has the singular where we should expect the plural. The generic article with the singular is discussed in § 261, 1. Isolated cases of the use of the singular for the plural must be learned by observation, but the following groups need attention:

1. **Nouns of Quantity.** Masculine and neuter nouns of quantity (denoting weight, measure, extent, height, length, amount, etc.) regularly stand in the uninflected singular after a numeral. The masculine *Mann man* and the feminine *Mark mark* (money) follow the same construction.

Thus, einige hundert Fuß unter uns *several hundred feet below us*; zwei Pfund Fleisch *two pounds of meat*; siebzehn Mark ist alles, was der Flüchtige zurückgelassen hat *seventeen marks are all that the fugitive left behind*; mit 120,000 Mann *with 120,000 men*. In this last illustration Mann shows the regular lack of inflection of the oblique cases in this construction. If the noun is actually in the singular, as after ein, or in the plural without a numeral, it is, of course, regularly inflected. For the case of an accompanying noun (for example, Fleisch in the second illustration above) see § 449.

(a) Nouns denoting time or money (except Mark) probably occur oftener in the plural after numerals than in the singular; as, zwanzig Pfennige pro Bogen *twenty pfennigs per sheet*; dreißig Jahre alt *thirty years old*. The singular is, however, not at all uncommon in ordinary speech. Other words that regularly stand in the singular in this construction are occasionally found in the plural.

(b) Feminines (except Mark) and foreign nouns of any gender regularly take the plural; as, zwei Meilen *two miles*, drei Flaschen *three bottles*, zehn Legionen *ten legions*, viele Talente *many talents*. Occasionally a feminine, especially if strong, stands in the singular, and fully naturalized borrowed words (Pfund, for example) regularly do so, if masculine or neuter.

(c) The singular in this use now signifies *collection*. Thus, vier Mann *a group of four men*, vier Männer *four individual men*. It originated in neuters which had no ending in their nominative and accusative plural (§ 121, 3) and then spread by analogy to the other nouns concerned.

2. **Collective.** The singular is much used in German in a collective sense; as, der Feind fiel ins Land *the enemy invaded the country*; sein Haar war grau *his hair was gray*; die Landesfürsten munterten den Kaufmann auf *the sovereigns encouraged the merchants*. The plural is much more usual in this construction in English than in German.

3. **Distributive.** If the sense is distributive, the singular of the noun is pretty regularly used in German, while English ordinarily has the plural in the same construction; as, auf

dem Gesichte der Hörer *on the faces of the listeners*; hast du der Kinder liebes Haupt verteidigt *have you defended the dear heads of your children?* man hört Annas und Johannes' Stimme *the voices of Anna and John are heard.* Notice also the singular of words for parts of the body which are found in pairs; as, darauf wischte sie sich Tränen aus dem Auge *then she wiped tears from her eyes.*

4. German has the singular and English regularly the plural when the noun has two, or more, mutually exclusive modifiers; as, unter dem vierten und fünften Grade nördlicher Breite *at the fourth and fifth degrees of northern latitude;* der erste und (der) zweite Vers *the first and the second verse(s).*

Abstract for Concrete

277. German may use an abstract noun in the singular with a concrete meaning; as, groß ist in Unterwalden meine Freundschaft *the number of my friends is large in Unterwalden;* weißt du, daß Besuch kommt *do you know that visitors are coming?* die ganze Bewohnerschaft *all the inhabitants.*

DIMINUTIVES

278. Diminutives are much more freely used in German than in English. In both languages they may express not only littleness but also endearment, familiarity, contempt, and exaggeration, or they may have a humorous tinge. Their more frequent use in German causes some difficulty in translating them into English. The indiscriminate employment of *little* as the equivalent of the German diminutive suffix is often very misleading. Thus, Väterchen is seldom *little father*; it means generally *dear father*, or, with more familiarity, *dad* or *governor*. Not infrequently the diminutive force is so slight that it is best not to attempt to render it in English. In some words the suffix has lost its diminutive force, though it may still have an effect on the meaning; as, Fräulein *unmarried woman*, Märchen *fairy story.*

ABSENCE OF DECLENSION

279. Nouns, unless preceded by some modifier, are not infrequently without declension, especially in pairs or in a series, but sometimes in other relations also; as, *für Fürst und Baterland* *for king and country*; *das Verhältnis von Herr und Sklave* *the relation of master and slave*; *von Mensch zu Mensch* *from man to man*. Both the inflected and uninflected forms are, however, possible in many cases, and the presence of the article or other limiting word regularly causes inflection.

i. The first of two nouns connected by *und*, and less frequently in other relations, may be without inflection; as, *an Tier und Vögeln fehlt es nicht* *there's no lack of beasts and birds*; *lange Tag und Nächte* *long days and nights*. This construction is now poetical, with the possible exception of a few set phrases.

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH AS NOUNS

280. Any of the other parts of speech and also phrases, clauses, and whole sentences may occur in constructions where they become in effect nouns. Thus, *Elsbeth und ihr Gegenüber* *Elsbeth and the person opposite her*; *ohne Wenn und Aber* *without if and but*; *statt ein Selbst zu sein instead of being a personality*; *ein vernehmliches „gute Nacht“* *an audible “good night”*; *Papa stellt sich an, als ob ich Gott weiß was verbrochen hätte* *papa acts as if I had done God only knows what*. The gender of such substantives is regularly the neuter, but when they refer to persons, and occasionally without reference to persons, they may have another gender. For their declension see § 122. Words like *Springinsfeld*, *Taugenichts*, etc., might also be considered here, but the frequency of their use makes it preferable to treat them as compound nouns. See § 692, i.

Proper Names

281. As proper nouns differ in several regards from common nouns, it is best to consider them separately.

DEFINITE ARTICLE WITH PROPER NAMES

282. With Names of Persons. Both baptismal and family names are regularly without the article if not preceded by some modifier; as, eine Stunde lang stand Paul da *Paul stood there for a whole hour*; er nickte Elisabeth zu he nodded to *Elizabeth*; unter den neuesten Romanen Spielhagens among the latest novels of *Spielhagen*. But the article is found, commonly contrary to English practice, in the following constructions:

1. The definite article, or some substitute for it (§ 259), must be inserted if the name is preceded by an adjective; as, der arme Arthur poor *Arthur*; mit der bereits erwähnten Katharina von Klettenberg with the before-mentioned *Catharine von Klettenberg*; in Begleitung des kleinen Ernst escorted by little *Ernest*. For the dropping of the genitive ending of names preceded by the article see § 291.

(a) But the article is omitted in direct address, as in English; thus, lieber Georg dear *George*. It is also occasionally omitted, mainly in poetry, when not in direct address, the adjective being then uninflected; as, herein zum Saal klein Roland tritt young *Roland enters the hall*.

2. German may also insert the article even when an adjective does not precede the name. Sometimes this is done to make the case clear; oftener the article indicates familiarity or contempt, or it may act as a substitute for Herr, Frau, or Fräulein in colloquial style. Thus, dem Wrangel gegenüber opposite *Wrangel*; das ist aber nicht der Heinrich but that is not *Henry*; du kennst die Runed you know Miss Runeck. Except to show case, this use of the article is more common in South than in North Germany. The article is also frequently put before the names of noted people; as, der Bismard. In all these cases the article is much more frequent in the spoken than in the written language.

3. The article is frequently found before the names of fictitious characters and also before the name of a person

for his work; as, *Corona Schroeter spielte die Iphigenie Corona Schroeter played (the rôle of) Iphigenia*; *der Rembrandt the (painting by) Rembrandt*; *im Homer lesen to read in Homer*. If the proper name assumes still more completely the force of a common noun, usage in English and German is the same; as, *der Nestor der europäischen Diplomatie the Nestor of European diplomacy*; *der Laokoön the (statue of) Laocoön*.

4. The rules for the article with the plural of proper names are essentially the same in both English and German.

283. With Common Nouns as Proper Names. Words for members of the family, as *father*, *sister*, *uncle*, etc., and also for some titles or offices may become in effect proper names and appear without the article or its equivalent; as, *Mutter sagt mother says*; *da seh' ich Exzellenz durch den Saal gehen then I see his Excellency going through the drawing room*. This usage with words for members of the family is more particularly North German. See also § 261, 4 a.

1. Akin to this usage is the occasional dropping of the article before other common nouns; as, *Knabe sprach: Ich breche dich the boy said: I'll pluck thee*; *Kläger hat diese Behauptung nicht aufgestellt the complainant did not make this allegation*.

284. With Names of Animals and Inanimate Objects. If proper names are given to animals or inanimate objects, they are treated like the names of persons; thus, *die braune Lisel brown Lizzie (cow)*; *hinter Ponto behind Ponto (dog)*; *die schwarze Susie black Susie (traction engine)*.

285. With Geographical Names. The use of the definite article with geographical names depends in part on the application of the name, in part on its gender.

1. **Names of Towns and Countries.** Neuter names of towns, countries, and political divisions are regularly without the article if not preceded by a modifier; as, *in London in London*; *der König von Preußen the king of Prussia*. If an adjective precedes, the article is inserted; thus, *das liebe*

Sachsen dear Saxony. For the omission of the ending of the genitive see § 292.

(a) But die Niederlande *the Netherlands*, das (or der) Elsaß Alsace. Names ending in *au* are mostly masculine, but a few are neuter (retaining the old gender of *Gau district*); they all take the article. Nearly all the names ending in *land* omit the article, though a very few keep it.

(b) The adjectives *ganz* and *halb* are commonly uninflected and without the article before neuter names of towns and countries; as, du wirst ganz Frankreich sammeln unter deinen Scepter thou wilt gather all France beneath thy scepter. If the article precedes, *ganz* and *halb* have the usual adjective inflection.

2. Masculine and feminine names of towns and countries have the article whether preceded by an adjective or not; as, die Türkei Turkey; die halbe Schweiz half Switzerland. See §§ 127, 2, 128, 2.

3. Other Geographical Names. All other geographical names, such as those of rivers, lakes, oceans, forests, mountains, city streets and squares, etc., are regularly preceded by the article, no matter what their gender; as, an den Rhein to the Rhine; in der Potsdamer Straße on Potsdam Street; der Thüringerwald the Thuringian Forest; die Alpen the Alps.

(a) But the article may be omitted before the names of streets in certain constructions. See § 348.

286. With Other Proper Names. The use of the article with other proper names conforms to the practice in English only in part:

1. The names of the seasons, months, and days, and of the divisions of the day, including the meals, are regularly with the article; as, im Sommer in summer; im Juni in June; vom Montag ab from Monday on; nach dem Frühstück after breakfast.

(a) For such constructions as Mitte Dezember see § 346, 1.

2. Other proper names not mentioned above use the article as in English; as, im Hinterzimmer des Schwarzen Adlers in the back room of the Black Eagle (inn); mit der Union with the Union (news-

paper); *der Kapitän der Crathie* *the captain of the Crathie* (ship); *der Engländer* *the Englishman*.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE WITH NAMES OF PERSONS

287. Here the usage of English and German is the same; as, *er ist ein Cicero* *he is a Cicero*; *ein Hohenzollern* *a Hohenzollern* (that is, a member of that family); *deutsche Musiker*, *ein Keiser*, *ein Hasse*, *sogar ein Händel* *German musicians*, *a Keiser*, *a Hasse*, *even a Händel* (that is, such musicians as these); *ins Deutsche von einem Peter Wernher übertragen translated into German by a (certain) Peter Wernher*; *er hatte einen schönen Dollond hervorgezogen* *he had pulled out a fine Dollond* (spyglass).

FEMININE SUFFIXES WITH NAMES OF PERSONS

288. Though now infrequent, the custom of adding *in* to a family name to indicate a female member of the family, or to the husband's title in speaking of the wife was formerly very common; as, *die Marloffin Mrs. Marloff*, *die Frau Professorin* *the professor's wife*. In familiar speech it may be weakened to *en*; as, *die Bergfeldten Mrs. Bergfeldt*.

1. Among the uneducated the adjective suffix (*i*)*sf* may be used in the same way with a family name; *'n schnellen Tod hat sie gehabt*, *die Drewfssche Mrs. Drewfs has had a sudden death*.

PLACE OF RESIDENCE

289. A person's place of residence is regularly indicated by a preposition; as, *Hermann Ullmann in Linz* *Hermann Ullmann of Linz*. But the custom has become very common in print of merely putting a hyphen between the name of the person and the place; as, *Professor Heinrich Weinel-Jena* *Professor Heinrich Weinel of Jena*. The practice is universally condemned by the grammarians. For names in *von* see § 125, 3 a.

GENITIVE SINGULAR OF PROPER NAMES

290. The manner of forming the genitive has already been considered in §§ 125–129, but the use of the terminations given there is much restricted by certain considerations.

291. **Names of Persons.** If an article or an equivalent, with or without an adjective, stands before it, the name of a person adds no termination for the genitive singular; as, in *Begleitung des kleinen Ernst* *escorted by little Ernest*; *die Dichtungen eines Gellert* *the works of a Gellert*.

1. An exception arises when the genitive of the name of a person thus modified precedes the noun on which it depends; as, *vor des Stauffachers Hause* *in front of Stauffacher's house*. But even here the ending is not infrequently dropped.

2. On the other hand, the adding of the genitive ending to the modified name was formerly the rule and occurs occasionally now; as, *die Gattin des glücklichen Tellheims* *the wife of the more fortunate Tellheim*.

292. **Names of Towns and Countries.** Neuter names of towns and countries add no ending for the genitive if preceded by an article or its equivalent, with or without an adjective; as, *die Straßen des alten Berlin* *the streets of old Berlin*. The inflected genitive is, however, much commoner here than with names of persons. The bare article with neuter names of towns and countries is infrequent; an adjective is usually present.

1. Feminine names of towns and countries add no ending for the genitive; masculine names usually add *s*. See §§ 127, 2, 128, 2.

2. *Von* with the dative is substituted for the genitive in connection with the name or title of a ruler; as, *der König von Spanien* *the king of Spain*.

293. **Other Proper Names.** All other masculine and neuter names regularly add an ending for the genitive singular. But the tendency to drop the ending, which has already triumphed for names of persons and for neuter names of towns and countries, is also at work here; thus, *die Könige*

Kurrenz des Wächter *the competition of the Wächter* (newspaper); an einem sonnigen Erntemorgen des August *on a sunny harvest morning in August*; der Kapitän des Sultan *the captain of the Sultan* (ship).

1. This construction is pretty near the rule with the names of the months and is slowly gaining with other names, though still the great exception.

294. This dropping of the genitive ending seems to be due to the feeling that the case is sufficiently shown by the article or other modifier and possibly also, in part, to dislike for the repetition of a sibilant. It even occurs occasionally with common nouns. A similar phenomenon is the substitution of (e)n for (e)s with strong adjectives and occasionally with pronominals.

DESCRIPTIVE NOUNS WITH PROPER NAMES

295. Proper names are often accompanied by titles, such as König, Graf, General, Hofrat, and the like, and by other descriptive words, such as Sohn, Vetter, Freund, Nachbar, Schloß, Schiff, etc. In their ordinary relations all these words are declined after the manner of other common nouns. Accompanying proper names, they may or may not be declined according as they precede or follow the name and are themselves modified or unmodified. Whether they are declined or not, their case is determined by the rules for case and for apposition.

296. Preceding the Name and Unmodified. A bare descriptive noun preceding a proper name is not inflected. The proper name then follows the rules for the declension of proper nouns (§ 125-129). Thus, Fräulein Ottiliens Brüder *Miss Ottilia's brother*; mit Graf Kjerkevanden *with Count Kjerkevanden*; der Betstuhl Kloster Søsdals *the prayer desk of the cloister Susdal*.

1. Herr is an exception, being now regularly declined. See § 300 for illustrations. In older usage, and occasionally still, it was treated like other titles.

297. Preceding the Name and Modified. If the descriptive word precedes the name and is itself modified by the article or its equivalent, it is declined, while the name takes no inflection; as, *mit der Büste des alten Kaisers Wilhelm with the bust of the old emperor William*; *ich sah den Fürsten Bismarck I saw Prince Bismarck*; *des Schlosses Bielstein of castle Bielstein*; *in Auftrag meines Onkels Friedrich by order of my uncle Frederick*.

1. The genitive ending *s* of a descriptive word is not infrequently dropped; as, *das Atelier des Professor Harry Crampton (the studio of Professor Harry Crampton)* instead of the more usual *des Professors Harry Crampton*.

2. Only the first of two or more preceding descriptive words is declined; as, *aus dem Nachlaß des Dichters Professor Dr. Georg Scherer from the estate of the poet, Professor (Doctor) George Scherer*.

298. Following the Proper Name. If the descriptive word, modified or unmodified, follows the name, it is declined, and the name adds or omits the genitive ending according to the usual rules (§ 291); as, *die Siege Heinrichs, Königs der Deutschen the victories of Henry, king of the Germans*; *durch die Bemühungen des Herrn Dr. A. Weiß, Professors an der königlichen Kriegssakademie through the efforts of Dr. A. Weiss, professor in the Royal Military Academy*; *in Gemeinschaft mit Dr. Max Jordan, dem Direktor der Berliner National-Galerie together with Dr. Max Jordan, director of the Berlin National Gallery*.

1. Adjectives following and describing a proper name belong here; thus, *die Zeiten Friedrichs des Großen the times of Frederick the Great*; *vom Karl dem Dicken from Charles the Fat*; *Ludwigs II. (= des zweiten), des Stammerers, Sohn son of Louis II, the Stammerer*.

299. The statements above give the prevailing modern usage. Exceptions are pretty numerous now and were once still more frequent. The proper name and title were formerly felt more as a sort of compound with resulting effect on the declension. On the other hand, the tendency to drop the genitive ending, if the case is made evident in some other way, grows stronger.

300. Herr, Frau, and Fräulein with Names of Persons. In addition to their frequent use as the equivalents of *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Miss*, these words are found in certain idiomatic constructions:

1. *Herr* is used, for politeness' sake, with a title or word for an occupation, with or without the proper name, in speaking to or of a man; as, *die Bemühungen des Herrn Dr. A. Weiß* *the efforts of Dr. A. Weiss*; *der Herr Major* *the major*; *kein Wort, Herr Baron* *not a word, Baron*. Particularly in direct address, where Germans are especially insistent upon it, this construction with *Herr* is carried to great lengths; as, *Herr Buchhalter*, *Herr Forstgehilfe*, *Herr Schneidermeister*. *Frau* and *Fräulein* are used in the same way if a woman has a title or occupation of her own; as, *Fräulein Doktor*.

(a) *Herr* is regularly declined in this and the following constructions; *Frau*, being feminine, shows no variation in the singular; *Fräulein* is treated like other titles, sometimes adding and sometimes omitting the § of the genitive singular.

2. *Herr*, *Frau*, and *Fräulein* are very commonly inserted, for politeness' sake, before words for members of the family; thus, *im Geschäft Ihres Herrn Vaters* *in the business of your father*; *seine Frau Gemahlin* *his wife*; *ich will, Herr Schwager* *I wish, brother-in-law*; *ist das Ihr (or Ihre) Fräulein Tochter* *is that your daughter?*

3. *Frau* is often inserted before the title or word for the occupation of the husband, with or without the proper name, in speaking to or of the wife; as, *Frau Professor*, *Frau Pastor* *Stieglitz*.

4. For the use of the feminine suffix in with proper names see § 288. For the article with proper names to show sex see § 282, 2.

TITLES OF BOOKS

301. Much confusion prevails regarding the declension of the titles of books, periodicals, articles, and the like. In

apposition with such words as *Werl*, *Roman*, *Zeitschrift*, the title is regularly left unchanged. Elsewhere declension is the commoner practice, but non-inflection is increasing. Thus, mit dem dreibändigen *Roman* „Das junge Europa“ *with the three-volume novel* “Young Europe”; unter der Überschrift, „Gustav Freytag und die Fremdwörter“ *under the heading* “Gustav Freytag and Foreign Words”; Vorspiel zu „Die Meistersinger“ *prelude to* “The Mastersingers”; in der „Maria Stuart“ in “Mary Stuart”; seine „Französischen Lustschlösser“ his “French Country Seats”; im neunundzwanzigsten Bande der „Preußischen Jahrbücher“ *in the twenty-ninth volume of the Prussian Annals.*” The quotation marks are often omitted. A verb is in the plural if its subject is a plural title, not in apposition with *Werl*, etc., as, die Ägyptischen Nachrichten waren das einzige Blatt the “Egyptian News” was the one paper.

ADJECTIVES

302. Only descriptive adjectives and participles used as adjectives are considered here. Articles, numerals, and some other words used either as adjectives or pronouns (known therefore as *pronominals*) also have adjective force, but they differ in other respects greatly from ordinary adjectives and are discussed elsewhere.

303. In their syntactical use adjectives are divided into four classes, according to whether they stand before their noun (the noun may be understood), or after the noun as appositives, or appear in predicate, or are used substantively. This classification does not indicate different adjectives but the different ways in which the same adjective may be used.

ADJECTIVES BEFORE THEIR NOUNS

304. The syntactical use of the adjective is the same whether it stands before its noun or whether the noun, though omitted, is understood; as, *der alte Mann* the old man, *ein*

junges Mädchen *a young girl*, warmes Blut *warm blood*, die schönere von beiden Schwestern *the more beautiful of the two sisters*. The noun decides the gender, number, and case of the adjective. Such adjectives are called *adherent* or *attributive*.

305. Repetition. The rules for the repetition of adjectives modifying nouns of differing gender or number are the same as for the article. See § 266.

SUBSTANTIVE ADJECTIVES

306. The adjective is substantive if it has the value of a noun. The gender and number of such adjectives are determined by the idea which they express; as, der Fremde *the stranger*, die Fremden *strangers*, ein Fremder *a stranger*, die Linke *the left hand*. The neuter singular often indicates an abstraction; as, das Schöne *the beautiful, beautiful things*, Altes und Neues *old and new (things)*. The case is determined by the usual rules for case.

Declension

307. An adjective, if it stands before its noun or with the noun understood or if it is used substantively, is declined, but the manner of its declension depends on the presence or absence of a preceding article or declined pronominal adjective, as follows:

308. Strong Declension. The adjective takes the endings of the strong declension (§ 133) if it is not preceded by an article or pronominal, or if the preceding pronominal is not declined in the construction; as, bei schönem Wetter *in fine weather*; manch besorgter Blick *many an anxious glance*; du verlangst Unmögliches *you demand the impossible*; während man viel Unnützes lehrt *while much that is useless is taught*; ein paar leise Worte *a few words in an undertone*. For the ending of the genitive singular of strong adjectives see § 133, 2.

1. If *mancher*, *solcher*, or *welcher* throws off its ending (without intervening *ein*) or if *viel*, *wenig*, etc. add no ending, the adjective is strong. It is also strong after the indeclinables *ein paar*, *ein wenig*, *ein bisschen*. The varying inflection of some of the pronominals, particularly of the indefinites, therefore plays an important part in the declension of adjectives.

2. The nominative and accusative singular neuter is, however, regularly weak after *dies* (for *dieses*); as, *dies stolze Herz this proud heart*.

3. For the dropping of strong endings see § 320.

309. Weak Declension. The adjective takes the endings of the weak declension (§ 134) if it is preceded by *der*, *dieser*, *jener*, *jeder*, *mancher*, *solcher*, *welcher*, or any other pronominal with the strong inflection; as, *auf der linken Seite on the left side*; *diese hohen Bäume these tall trees*; *man brachte eiligt das Verlangte what was desired was brought very quickly*.

1. This rule calls for the weak inflection of the adjective after *viel*, *einig*, etc., if they add a distinctive ending. But see § 317.

2. *Mancher*, *solcher*, and *welcher* often drop the endings. The following adjective is then declined strong, if *ein* does not intervene.

310. Mixed Declension. The adjective takes the endings of the mixed declension (§ 135) if it is preceded by *ein*, *kein*, *mein*, *dein*, *sein*, *ihr* (*Ihr*), *unser*, or *euer*. That is, the adjective is weak or strong according as these words have or do not have an ending; thus, *auf einem hohen Berge on a high mountain*; *mein teurer Sohn my dear son*; *wir haben unser Möglichstes auch getan we have also done our very best*.

1. The adjective is of the mixed declension after *manch ein*, *solch ein*, *welch ein*, *so ein*, *so kein* (§ 385), *ein solcher*, *ein jeglicher*, and also regularly after a possessive preceded by *dieser* or *jener* (as *dieser mein*, etc.). It is commonly weak after *ein jeder*.

311. Compound Adjectives. Only the last member of a compound adjective is declined. This rule applies not only to adjectives written as compounds (*fürzlebig*, for example) but also to adjectives that are in effect compounds, though not so written; as, *das schwarze und weiße Banner der Stadt*

the black and white banner of the city, das Königlich Preußisches Zollamt the Royal Prussian Customhouse. Contrast this with the construction in § 312, 3.

312. Adjectives in the Same Construction. Two or more adjectives in the same construction are declined alike; as, *ein paar große, helle Tränen some big, shining tears;* *das lange, blonde, gelockte Haar his long, light-colored, curly hair;* *du Tapferer und Reiner thou brave and pure one.*

1. When the first adjective is in the strong dative singular, masculine or neuter, the second exhibits a decided tendency to become weak, especially if it has closer connection in meaning with the noun. It may also be weak in the genitive plural and in the feminine genitive and dative singular, though less frequently. Thus, *in beständigem persönlichen Verkehr in constant personal intercourse;* *die Folgen großer körperlichen Anstrengungen the results of great physical exertion.*

2. A substantive adjective following one or more strong adjectives is sometimes weak; as, *ein tüchtiger Beamte an excellent official;* *ein angenehmes Aussehen a pleasing appearance.*

3. Sometimes only the last of two or more adjectives is declined in poetical style; as, *ein unerfreulich jammernswürdiger Anblick an unpleasant, pitiable sight;* *in enger stets und engerm Kreis in a more and more contracted circle.* It is sometimes a question, owing to this lack of inflection, whether the first of two words is an adjective or an adverb.

313. After was, nichts, and etwas. An adjective after *was* *what,* *nichts nothing,* and *etwas* (*or was*) *something* is now regarded as a strong neuter substantive adjective and is declined for case accordingly; as, *was gibt es Neues what's the news?* *ich weiß von nichts Besonderem I know of nothing special;* *nach etwas Neuem for something new;* *das wird was Rares sein that will be something fine.* Originally a partitive genitive *was* was used here, but the appositional construction has completely prevailed.

314. After wer, jemand, and niemand. The appositional construction is also now the regular one after *wer who* or *somebody* (§ 193), *jemand somebody,* and *niemand nobody;* as, *wer anderer who (or somebody) else,* *mit jemand Erwachsenem*

with some grown-up person. But the partitive genitive, especially of *ander*, is still fairly common; thus, *ich meine — wer Fremdes I mean — what stranger?* *ich bin es* [= *Herr im Hause*], und *niemand anderes I am and nobody else.* The partitive genitive of *all* is also regularly found after *wer*; as, *wer alles who all?*

315. After Numerals. The cardinal numerals, except *ein*, have no effect on the declension of an accompanying adjective, which follows the usual rules; as, *die drei großen Fenster the three large windows*, but *drei große Fenster*. The ordinals are always preceded by an article or pronominal; both they and an adjective following are declined accordingly.

1. After the occasional strong genitives *zweier* and *dreier* (§ 147, 1) the adjective is regularly weak, however. Indefinite or numeral indeclinable adjectives, such as *allerhand*, *allerlei*, *vielerlei*, and the like, do not affect the declension of an accompanying adjective.

IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE DECLENSION

316. The modern rules for the use of the strong and the weak adjective are the outcome of a long development. Exceptions to the rules given above are therefore far more numerous in older literature than in that of the present day. Many of the cases of the occurrence of strong endings instead of weak, or of weak instead of strong in violation of these rules, are no longer permissible and need not be considered here. Certain other exceptions, which are still more or less current, are mentioned below.

317. Strong Endings for Weak. After the plurals *viele*, *wenige*, *mehrere*, *einige*, *etliche*, *alle*, *beide*, *andere*, and (less frequently) *manche*, *solche*, *welche*, an adjective may be strong, especially in the nominative and accusative; as, *viele leuchtende Augen many shining eyes*. With some of these words the strong nominative and accusative plural of the adjective is still commoner than the weak, but the weak form is always

correct and is increasing in frequency. After the inflected singular of these words the weak adjective is now the rule, though strong forms may occur. If any of these words are preceded by the definite article or a demonstrative, they and the adjective following are declined weak.

318. Weak Endings for Strong. Words like *besagt*, *folgend*, etc., are often found without a preceding definite article (§ 262, 3 d), contrary to English usage, and may then be followed by an adjective with a weak ending; as, *folgende wichtigen Tatsachen* *the following important facts*. The weak form is more common in the plural than in the singular. These words lie in meaning between ordinary descriptive and pronominal adjectives; hence the uncertainty about the ending of the adjective following. But the regular construction with the strong ending is now the commoner here and is increasing in frequency.

319. In Address and after Personal Pronouns. Here we should expect the strong adjective. In address it is regularly strong if no personal pronoun is present; as, *Lieber, das weiß ich nicht* *my dear, I do not know*; *fürser Friede, komm sweet peace, come*; *Geduld, liebe Freunde patience, dear friends*. But it is not infrequently weak in the plural; as, *lieben Freunde*. After pronouns it is nearly always strong in the nominative singular, but is oftener weak than strong in the other cases of the singular and in the whole plural; as, *ich unglücklicher Mann I, unhappy man*; *du, arme Frau you poor woman*; *er dummer Kerl he, stupid fellow*; *wir Jüngerer we younger men*; *mir armen Manne to me, poor man*; *ihr lieben Leute you dear people*.

320. Dropping of Endings. The ending *eß* of the nominative and accusative singular neuter is still not infrequently dropped, especially in poetry; as, *gut Glück good luck, ein fröhlich Herz a happy heart*. The dropping of masculine or feminine endings or of other neuter endings is uncommon.

1. For *ganz* with neuter names of towns and countries see § 285, 1 b.

321. Undeclined Substantive Adjectives. The substantive adjective may be without declension:

1. In a number of set expressions, mostly where the adjectives occur in pairs and without the article; as, *hoch und niedrig müssen einmal wechseln* *high and low must sometime change places*; *zwischen böse und gut* *between good and evil*. This construction was formerly more frequent than now. For the use of the initial small letter see § 8, 1 a.

2. Substantive adjectives used as names of languages are commonly treated as indeclinable neuters; thus, *ein gebrochenes, mit Französisch und Italienisch durchflochtenes Deutsch* (a) *broken German intermingled with French and Italian*; *mein Englisch* *my English*; *auf Deutsch in German*; *um eines reinen Griechisch willen for the sake of (a) pure Greek*. They may be declined if they immediately follow the definite article, and inflection is the rule if they are then also governed by a preposition; as, *das Deutsch(e) German, aus dem Französischen ins Deutsche from French into German*.

(a) The adjective is declined in *der Deutsche* *the German (man)*, *die Deutsche* *the German (woman)*, *ein Deutscher* *a German (man)*, *die Deutschen* *the Germans*, etc. Other names of nationalities, such as *Engländer* *Englishman*, *Französisch* *Frenchman*, etc., are actual nouns and are declined accordingly.

322. Indeclinable Adjectives. Some adjectives are indeclinable even when they precede their noun. Such are: 1. *Lauter* and *eitel* *nothing but*, *genug enough*, *mehr more*, *weniger less*. 2. Those in *er* from names of towns and countries (§ 673, 5). 3. Those in *erlei* (§ 677, 4). 4. A few of foreign origin denoting color, such as *rosa* *pink*, *lila* *lilac-colored*. Thus, *der Stettiner Bahnhof* *the Stettin station*; *in ihren rosa Wäschleidern* *in their pink wash dresses*. Some adjectives can be used only in predicate and are never declined. See § 326.

(a) Another adjective following one of these indeclinables is declined according to the construction in which it stands; as, *von Lauter goldenen Herzen* *by nothing but golden hearts*.

APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVES

323. Here are included, for convenience, not only adjectives following their nouns, but also those occurring in constructions equivalent to a clause and in absolute constructions. Absence of declension is the rule.

1. Following the Noun. If not preceded by an article or pronominal, an adjective following the noun which it explains is regularly undeclined; as, *von der Stirne heiß from the hot brow*; *ein junges Mädchen, klein, überschlank a small and too slender young girl*. As in English, this position of the adjective is infrequent in prose.

(a) Occasionally the adjective is declined; as, *echte Dichter, große wie kleine genuine poets, great as well as minor*. It must be declined if preceded by an article or pronominal; thus, *sie setzten sich auf die Bänke, die hölzernen they sat down on the wooden benches*.

2. In Constructions Equivalent to a Clause. The adjective may stand before or after its noun and be separated from it by one word or more. It is not declined; thus, *reich an Besitztum wohnt der Vater mir daheim my father, (who is) rich in possessions, dwells at home*; *eine Ruhebank, mit kurzem und dichtem Gras bewachsen a seat covered with short and thick grass*.

(a) This construction is not so common in German as in English, the adjective, preceded by its modifiers, being generally placed before its noun in German; thus, *von ihren einander gegenüber gelegenen Häusern from their houses situated opposite one another*. See § 649.

3. In Absolute Constructions. A participle accompanying an accusative (§ 471) or nominative (§ 434) absolute or itself used absolutely (§§ 583, 5, 586, 7) is not declined; as, *er setzt sich, das Gesicht von Praxedis abgewandt he sits down with his face turned away from Praxedis*; *die Augen zugebunden, hast du mich schnell gefunden with blindfolded eyes you quickly found me*.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

324. An adjective in predicate is regularly undeclined. The uses of such adjectives may be classified as follows:

1. Referring to the Subject. The adjective refers to the subject if it is in predicate with verbs expressing being, becoming, continuing, and the like, with other intransitives

expressing condition or motion, and with the passive of verbs mentioned in subsection 2 just below; as, *du bist glücklich* *you are happy*; *ich werde schlaftrig* *I am growing sleepy*; *sie scheint zufrieden* *she seems contented*; *mein Freund liegt krank* *my friend lies ill*; *der Stoff wird blau gefärbt* *the material is dyed blue*.

2. **Referring to the Object.** A predicate adjective referring to the object may accompany some transitive verbs, as in English; thus, *der einzige Weg, einen Menschen besser zu machen* *the only way to make a man better*; *ich finde es langweilig* *I find it tiresome*; *er ließ die Speisen unberührt* *he left the food untouched*; *man nennt ihn geizig* *they call him stingy*.

(a) A predicate adjective expressing the condition into which the object is brought by the action of the verb is found with intransitive (§ 463, 3) as well as transitive verbs; thus, *ich habe mich müde gestanden* *I have made myself tired by standing*; *schlaf dich gesund* *sleep and get well*; *er goß den Becher voll* *he poured the cup full*. This construction occurs in English also (for example, *they painted the fence white*) but is far more frequent in German. This adjective is known as the *adjunct accusative* or *objective predicate*.

3. **After als or für.** A variation of either of the above kinds of predicate adjectives is found in the undeclined adjective after *als* or, with a few verbs, after *für*; as, *er stellt den Mann als ehrlich dar* *he represents the man as honest*; *die Ausführung erscheint als fehlerhaft* *the execution seems faulty*; *ich halte ihn für närrisch* *I consider him foolish*.

325. But an adjective in the predicate is declined if it is used substantively, or stands before its noun, or is preceded by an article or pronominal adjective; as, *ich bin die Schwäche* *I am the weak one*; *wir sind reisende Ritter* *we are traveling knights*; *ein neues Buch ist nicht immer ein gutes* *a new book is not always a good one*; *das wird was Nares sein* *that will be something fine*. In none of these cases is the

adjective, though a part of the predicate, actually a predicate adjective.

1. **Voller** is an old inflected form which, as well as the uninflected *voll*, is still used freely in predicate or appositively; as, *wo alles voller Blumen ist* *where everything is full of flowers*; *du bist voll Mäkel* *you are full of flaws*. See § 441, 3.

326. Adjectives only in Predicate or Apposition. Some adjectives cannot be used before a noun. They are therefore undeclined and occur only in predicate or in apposition. Such are *angst anxious*, *bereit ready*, *feind hostile*, *gram averse to*, *fund known*, *leid grievous*, *not necessary*, *nütze useful*, *schuld to blame for*, and some others.

1. On the other hand, there are a few adjectives whose use in predicate or in apposition is rare or questionable if they are not preceded by an article or pronominal. For the predicate superlative see § 332.

MODIFIERS OF THE ADJECTIVE

327. The adjective may be modified by an adverb or adverbial clause, by a noun or pronoun in the genitive (§ 441), dative (§ 457), or accusative (§ 468), by an infinitive, or by a prepositional phrase. For the position of the modifiers of the adjective see § 649.

ADJECTIVES AS ADVERBS

328. Most adjectives can be used in their uninflected form as adverbs (§ 587). The uninflected adjective may thus be employed in apposition, as a predicate, or as an adverb. Occasionally it is difficult to decide which of these three uses is intended.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

329. Relative and Absolute Comparison. Ordinarily the comparative and superlative are found in relative comparison, that is, ascribing to an object, or objects, a higher or the highest degree of the quality expressed by the adjective; as, *der See ist tiefer als der Fluß* *the lake is deeper than the*

river; der beste Kaffee kommt aus Arabien *the best coffee comes from Arabia.* They may, however, be used in absolute comparison, in which the comparative indicates a tolerably high and the superlative a very high degree of the quality expressed by the adjective; as, *nach längerem Stillschweigen* *after a longish silence*; *der Mann hat erst als ein Alterer geheiratet* *the man did not marry till he was pretty old*; *die Ankunft Ihrer besten Mutter* *the arrival of your excellent mother*; *die wenigen* *only a few*.

1. The absolute superlative is generally avoided by using an adverb, such as *sehr*, *höchst*, and the like, with the positive, but the absolute comparative is not infrequent.

Declension of Comparatives

330. The comparative may be inflected or uninfl ected. The same rules apply to it as to the positive; thus, *sein schlimmster Platz* *no worse place*; *sein Gesicht war noch blässer als sonst* *his face was even paler than usual*.

Declension of Superlatives

331. The superlative must always be declined; thus, *ich ärmer I*, *most miserable one*; *es war die höchste Zeit* *it was high time*; *die allerfeinsten Waren* *the very finest wares*; *bei hellstem Sonnenschein* *in the brightest sunshine*; *unsere nächsten Hefte* *our next issues*.

1. The superlative is nearly always preceded by the definite article or by a pronominal adjective, though it may appear without such accompaniment in its absolute use and occasionally elsewhere. It is preceded only rarely by the indefinite article.

332. In Predicate. The superlative, always declined, appears in predicate in one of two forms:

1. If it compares an object with itself under different conditions, it stands in the weak dative after *am* (for an

dem); as, diese Farbe ist bei Licht am schönsten *this color is most beautiful in the light*; wo die Not am größten, ist Gottes Hilfe oft am allernächsten *when the need is greatest, God's help is often nearest*.

2. Otherwise the predicate superlative is in the nominative after the definite article or a pronominal; as, die frühesten Blumen sind die lieblichsten *the earliest flowers are the loveliest*; das Klügste wäre das Klügste gewesen *the boldest (course) would have been the wisest*. But the form in *am* is often used, especially colloquially, where the other construction is the logical one.

(a) *Allerliebst* offers the sole exception to the rule that the superlative must be declined in the predicate; it has come to mean *charming, delightful*.

Further Comments about the Comparative and Superlative

333. 1. What English expresses by two comparatives connected by *and* or by *more and more* with the positive (for example, *angrier and angrier, more and more angry*) is commonly expressed in German by *immer* with the comparative; as, er wird immer reicher *he is getting richer and richer*. It may also be expressed by *immer mehr* or *mehr und mehr* with the positive, or by connecting the two comparatives by *und*.

2. The superlative is often strengthened by prefixing the genitive *aller*; as, die allerfeinsten Waren *the very finest wares*. As in English, the comparative and superlative may also be strengthened by adverbs; thus, *viel besser much better, noch stärker still stronger, bei weitem der größte Teil by far the greatest part*.

3. Double comparison and the use of the superlative with reference to only two objects occur occasionally, as in English; thus, *mehr lokaleres Interesse more local(er) interest; der Klügste von uns beiden the wisest of us two*.

CONJUNCTIONS WITH THE COMPARATIVE

334. *Als* is the conjunction ordinarily used in connection with the comparative; as, ein Jahr älter als das Mädchen *a year older than the girl*; so fühlte er sich reicher als bisher *therefore he felt himself richer than hitherto*.

335. **Wie** is also frequently found with the comparative in the same sense as **als**; thus, *dies Schwert ist etwas leichter wie das alte* *this sword is somewhat lighter than the old one*; *machen sie sich nicht besser wie sie sind* *do not make yourself out better than you are*. This construction, though still common, is becoming less frequent. **Wie** is limited more and more to expressions of *equality*, *similarity*, or *identity* and therefore accompanies the positive in preference to the comparative.

1. The positive, regularly preceded by **so**, **aſo**, or **ebenſo** (all meaning *as* or *just as*), is often followed by **als**, though **wie** is not uncommon in colloquial style; thus, *dieser Maler ist nicht ſo berühmt als sein Vater* *this painter is not so famous as his father*; *meine Hand, noch ist sie weiß wie Milch* *my hand is still as white as milk*.

(a) Occasionally, mainly in poetry, **als wie** occurs after either the comparative or the positive with the meaning of **als** or **wie**; thus, *du follſt es auf der Welt besser haben als wie wir* *you shall have things better in the world than we*.

2. **Denn** was the regular conjunction after the comparative in an older period. It occurs occasionally still, especially if **als** stands elsewhere in the sentence; as, *der Marquis war ſo viel reicher denn er* *the marquis was so much richer than he*; *höher als Komponist denn als Poet* *higher as composer than as poet*.

COMPARISON WITH **mehr** AND **am meisten**

336. Unlike *more* and *most* in English, **mehr** and **am meisten** with the positive are little used to make a comparative and a superlative. They are, however, occasionally employed anywhere by the best writers and are commoner than the regular forms in **er** and **(e)ſt** in the following:

1. When the comparison is between the qualities expressed by two adjectives, not between two objects with different degrees of the same quality. Here **mehr** is commoner than the regular comparative; as, *wenn man in der Gesellschaft mehr höflich als wahr ist* *if people are more polite than truthful in society*; *seine mehr breite als hohe Stirn* *his forehead broad rather than high*.

2. In the comparative and superlative of indeclinable adjectives (§ 322) and, to a less extent, of participles and of adjectives with

dependent oblique cases, or prepositional phrases, also to avoid a very harsh combination of sounds; as, *mehr gram more averse to, von der am meisten aristokratischen Gesellschaft Europas by the most aristocratic society of Europe.*

DESCENDING COMPARISON

337. In the descending comparison (§ 143) with *weniger* or *minder* and *am wenigsten* or *am mindesten* the adjective is actually a positive and is treated accordingly; as, *mein Schritt war weniger fest my step was less firm*; *für die minder Tüchtigen for those less capable*; *der am wenigsten Unterrichtete the one least informed*.

NUMERALS

CARDINALS

338. The cardinals are used freely with or without a noun; as, *dreißig Jahre alt thirty years old*; *ein Mehr von zwanzig gegen zwölf a majority of twenty to twelve*. When the cardinals are used as substantives, a dependent noun or pronoun is put in the genitive or in the dative after *von*; as, *zwei meiner Brüder* or *zwei von meinen Brüdern two of my brothers*.

339. Uses of *ein*. 1. Standing before its noun and itself not preceded by the definite article or a pronominal, *ein* follows the usual rules for the agreement of adjectives. As a numeral, in contrast to the same word used as the indefinite article, it is emphatic and suffers no contraction. For ways of distinguishing it to the eye from the indefinite article see § 4. In the spoken language the stress distinguishes the numeral from the article.

2. Standing alone, it is a substantive numeral or an indefinite pronoun; as, *es ist nur einer, der es ganz erfüllt there is only one who entirely fills it*; *wenn einem alles neu ist when all is new to one*.

3. Preceded by the definite article or a pronominal, it may be either an adjective or a substantive; as, *vor dem einen Fenster in front of one window*; *neber das eine noch das andere neither the one (thing) nor the other*. For its declension in these three positions see § 146.

340. Uninflected *ein*. *Ein* is not declined at all:

1. As the first part of a compound numeral; as, *einundzwanzig Jahre twenty-one years, das einundzwanzigste Jahr*.

2. When followed by *und*, *oder*, or *bis* and another cardinal; as, *in ein bis zwei Stunden between one and two hours*. Or with omission of the

connective; *ein, zwei Wochen lang for a week or two.* Also when followed by *derselbe*; as, *an ein und demselben Tage on one and the same day.*

3. In *ein wenig, ein bisschen, ein paar* (§ 424), meaning *some*.
4. In some indefinite numeral expressions, such as *ein achtzig* (§ 342, 1).

5. Regularly before fractionals (§ 344).

6. With *Uhr* in expressions of time; as, *nach ein Uhr after one o'clock.*

7. After *101* and *1001* the noun may be put in the singular and *ein* made to agree with it, or the noun may be in the plural and *ein* left uninflected; as, in the accusative, *tausendbundeinen Grund* or *tausendbundein Grunde* *a thousand and one reasons.* Sometimes an invariable *eine* occurs before a feminine noun; very rarely a noun stands in the plural, preceded by the singular of *ein* inflected for gender and case.

341. Uses of eins. In addition to its use as an ordinary numeral or indefinite pronoun, *eins*, the shortened form of *eines*, occurs in various idioms:

1. In counting and, without *Uhr*, in expressions of time; as, *iß gähle eins, zwei, drei I count one, two, three; vor eins before one (o'clock).* But *ein* may occur instead of *eins* in both these constructions.

2. Expressing *harmony, agreement, identity, and the like;* as, *mit ihm waren wir eins geworden we had come to an agreement with him.*

3. As the object of a verb or in a prepositional phrase, with various meanings; as, *bis das Essen fertig wird wollen wir eins trinken while we wait for dinner, we will take a drink; mit eins all at once.*

342. Numerals are made indefinite or approximate, as in English, by the use of adverbs, such as *etwa, beinahe, etc.* The prepositions *an, auf, and in* may have the same effect; as, *an die zehn Jahre about ten years.*

1. An invariable *ein* or *eine* is used in the same way; as, *ein zwanzig, dreißig Jahre twenty or thirty years; ein Taler achtzig eighty talers or so; eine zwei Stunden früher some two hours earlier.*

ORDINALS

343. The ordinals are adjectives and are treated like other adjectives in the same situation; thus, *im ersten Fenster in the first window; als der Zweite geendet hatte when the second one had ended.* But an ordinal may be uninflected after *zu*; as, *zu dritt three in all.*

FRACTIONALS

344. The fractionals, except *halb* and *Hälften*, both meaning *half*, are neuter nouns. A dependent noun is regularly in the genitive or the dative after *von*, unless it is a masculine or neuter denoting quantity (§ 276), when it is invariable; as, *ein Drittel seiner Sachen* or *von seinen Sachen* *a third of his things*; *drei Viertel Pfund* *three quarters of a pound*. They also make compounds with the accent on the last member; as, *ein Viertelpfund* *a quarter of a pound*; *eine Zehntelsekunde* *a tenth of a second*. Ein preceding a fractional is regularly uninflected.

i. *Hälften* is a feminine noun. A noun dependent on it is in the genitive or in the dative after *von*. *Halb* is an adjective and is ordinarily treated like other adjectives; as, *ein halber Apfel* *half an apple*; *die halbe Stadt spricht davon* *half the town is talking of it*. For its lack of inflection with names of towns and countries see § 285, i b. If it is preceded by a cardinal, it may agree with its noun, which is then singular; as, *drei und einen halben Monat* *three and a half months*. Or it may remain uninflected, often with omission of *und*, the noun then being in the plural; as, *einundehnhalf Jahre* *one and a half years*; *dreieinhalf Millionen Mark* *three and a half million marks*.

(a) As the name of the fraction, *Halb* is a neuter noun; thus, *ein Sechstel von ein Halb bleibt ein Drittel* *a sixth from a half leaves a third*.

DATES

345. The day of the month is expressed by an ordinal, with or without the name of the month; as, *am 7. Juli* or *am 7ten Juli* or *am sieb(en)ten Juli* *on the seventh of July*; *heute ist der zwanzigste April*, oder *haben wir schon den einundzwanzigsten to-day is the twentieth of April, or is it already the twenty-first?* *Gneisenau schrieb den 22.* *Gneisenau wrote on the 22nd.* For the case in expressions of time see § 470.

i. Der *wieviele*, made after the manner of an ordinal, is much used in asking for the day of the month; as, *der wievielte ist heute* or *den wievielten haben wir heute what day of the month is it?*

346. The year, expressed by the cardinal, follows the name of the month or season without an intervening comma; as, im Juli 1811 (read achtzehnhundertundelf commonly) *in July, 1811*; im Spätsommer 1629 *in the late summer of 1629*. Examples of dates with the omission of the name of the month or the season are: am Abschluſſe des Jahres 1807 *at the close of the year 1807*; im Jahre 1769 *in the year 1769*; welches 1772 zuerst erschien *which first appeared in 1772*; der Held von 1809 *the hero of 1809*; seit 1808 since 1808; schon 1771 *as early as 1771*. A common way of writing the date of letters is illustrated by d. (or den) 19. August 1906. While prepositions, except in, often occur with or without the insertion of Jahr, accepted usage requires im Jahre, not simply in, before the numeral, as im Jahre 1769, not in 1769. The latter construction is increasing in frequency, however.

1. Notice also such contracted expressions as Anfang Oktober *at the beginning of October*; Mitte Dezember *in the middle of December*; Ende März *at the end of March*; endlich Februar 1813 *finally in February, 1813*. The full form also occurs; as, im Anfang des Dezember. For the omission of the genitive ending, as in the last illustration, see § 298.

TIME OF DAY

347. The hour is denoted by a numeral, and o'clock by Uhr, the minutes being commonly expressed as in English; as, um zwei Uhr *at two o'clock*; eine Minute nach eins (**§ 341**) *a minute after one*; fünf Minuten vor acht *five minutes before eight*. The half and quarter hours are counted forwards; as, (ein) viertel (auf) acht *a quarter past seven*; halb acht, occasionally halb auf acht *half past seven*; drei Viertel (auf) acht *a quarter to eight*. Other expressions will be readily intelligible. Wie viel is generally used in asking for the time of day; as, wie viel Uhr ist es *what o'clock is it?*

HOUSE NUMBERS

348. The house number follows the name of the street; as, *Schumannstraße 2, 2 Schumann Street*; *Lützowstraße 8, drei Treppen hoch* (commonly written 8^m) *8 Lützow Street, up three flights*; *Dessauer Straße 1, Ecke Königgrätzer Straße* (or in full, *an der Ecke der Königgrätzer Straße*) *1 Dessau Street, corner of Königgrätz Street*. The contraction for *Straße* is *Str.* or *str.*

1. *Lützowstraße* and *Dessauer Straße* illustrate an approved difference in the manner of writing street names, *Lützow* being a proper noun and *Dessauer* an adjective. When the adjective is declinable, as in *Französischstraße*, it is inflected like any other adjective in the same position; thus, *in der Französischen Straße*. The same rules apply to the noun or adjective before *Gasse*, *Platz*, etc. But *Dessauerstraße*, *Französischstraße*, or *Dessauer-Straße*, *Französische-Straße*, are also quite common.

PRONOUNS

AGREEMENT

349. A pronoun agrees in gender and number with the noun to which it refers, while its case is determined by the construction in which it stands. If the pronoun refers to the plural of a noun or to two or more nouns, it will itself be plural, its case being determined as before.

1. But *wer*, *was*, and the pronouns of the first and second person do not vary for gender, and there are no distinctions of gender in the plural of any of the pronouns. Some of the indefinites never have an antecedent. Occasionally the direct reference of a pronoun is to another pronoun, especially to one of the personal pronouns.

350. Important exceptions to the rule for agreement are:

1. A pronoun referring to a neuter noun denoting a person, such as *Fräulein*, *Mädchen*, *Weib*, or to a neuter diminutive of the name of a person, such as *Kärlchen*, *Röschchen*, now commonly conforms to the natural gender; as, *das Mädchen . . . sie*. But the neuter frequently occurs in literature and

even in ordinary speech; as, *das Mädelchen . . . es*. A relative pronoun referring to such a noun is pretty regularly neuter; as, *das Mädelchen, das or welches*.

2. A neuter singular pronoun may refer to persons of different sex; as, *ich habe keines von meinen Großeltern gekannt* *I knew none of my grandparents.* The masculine singular is, however, much commoner here.

3. Quite different from the foregoing is the use of the neuter singular collectively for persons, sometimes referring to a preceding noun or nouns, sometimes without such reference; as, *alles sah nach der Uhr* *they all looked at the clock*; *und was sich sonst an meinem Lied erfreuet* *and they who once delighted in my song.* In this usage *das* may be contemptuous or humorous; as, *um Himmels willen und das will heiraten* *for heaven's sake, the creatures want to marry.* A neuter pronoun may also refer contemptuously or humorously to a single person; as, *will das zu uns* *does that thing want to come in here?* The neuter singular may also be used to sum up several preceding nouns of differing gender. Only very rarely is a pronoun in the masculine or feminine singular used with reference to two or more nouns.

4. Otherwise the rule for agreement in number is more closely observed in German than in English. Thus, it is only occasionally that a plural pronoun refers to a collective noun in the singular; as, *das Wolf . . . sie*, instead of the much more frequent *die Wolf . . . es*.

351. Pronominal Adjectives. A number of the pronominal words can also be used before a noun. Like other adjectives, they then agree with their noun in gender, number, and case; as, *in diesem Leben in this life.* Details are given in connection with the individual words.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

352. For the occasional omission of a personal pronoun when subject of a sentence see § 614. For the repetition of personal pronouns after relatives see § 406. For the German equivalents

of *he who*, *they who*, etc., see § 417. As the use of the pronoun of the first person is the same in English and German, it is not discussed here.

SECOND PERSON

353. In Ordinary Speech. 1. *Du* is used in speaking to a member of one's family and also to a very intimate friend, a child, an animal, an inanimate object, and often in addressing one's self. *Ihr* is its plural. Thus, *kommst du mit uns*, *Tante Berta are you coming with us*, *Aunt Bertha?* *Kinder*, *seid ihr alle da* *children*, *are you all present?* *Sie* is used in speaking to one or more persons other than those mentioned above. It is therefore the most widely used pronoun of address outside the family.

(a) While *Sie* is plural and always governs a plural verb, an adjective dependent on it is in the singular if it applies to only one person; as, *Sie Armster you poor fellow*. Notice also that *Sie* is now commonly employed in speaking to an adult servant.

(b) A change in the pronoun addressed to a person may be very significant. Thus, a change from *Sie* to *du* may mean increased intimacy or anger or contempt, while one from *du* to *Sie* may be humorous or indicate estrangement or anger.

2. *Du* and *ihr*, like *thou* and *ye* in English, are used in prayer, in invocation of the saints, and the like. This is also the usage in literature.

3. *Du*, or the corresponding form of the imperative, is used in proverbs, in general exhortations, often in printed polemics and advertisements, in speaking to a person as a representative of his class, and the like. *Ihr*, or the corresponding form of the imperative, is also common in these uses both as the plural of *du* and as a substitute for it. Thus, *sage mir, mit wem du umgehst, und ich sage dir, wer du bist* *tell me with whom you associate, and I will tell you what you are*; *möchtest du, vielgeliebter Leser would you like, dearly beloved reader?* *ihr Weiber you women*; *wählst alle liberal all vote the*

liberal ticket! In some of these uses there is a growing tendency to employ *Sie*.

4. A title, or *Herr*, *Frau*, or *Fräulein* with or without a title, may take the place of a pronoun of the second person. The verb is sometimes in the third person singular, but is oftener in the third person plural. If the verb is singular, the possessive adjective is *sein* or *ihr* (both meaning *your*), according to the sex of the person addressed. If the verb is plural, the possessives are *Ihr*, declined, *Euer*, frequently not declined, and the indeclinables *Ihro* (§ 154, 4) and *Dero* (§ 163, 2 b). The last three are properly applied only to the highest functionaries, except humorously. An oblique case of a title may stand for the same case of a pronoun. This manner of address is still customary in official and very formal style and is often employed, though with diminishing frequency, by tradespeople, servants, etc. Thus, *wir meinten, der Herr wäre ein reisender Engländer* *we thought you were a traveling Englishman*; *wollen gnädiges Fräulein nicht auf dem Sofa Platz nehmen* *will you not sit down on the sofa?* *eine Anzahl Herren wünscht den Herrn Oberst zu sprechen* *a number of gentlemen wish to speak to you, colonel*; *Herr Amtsrat werden Ihre Freude haben* *you will be pleased, judge*; *auf Ew. (for Euer) Königlichen Majestät Befehl* *at the command of your (royal) majesty*; *wollen Ihro Excellenz nur die Gnade haben will your Excellency only be so kind?* *als ich Dero Pothen vernahm when I heard your knocking.*

354. In Literature. 1. Novels and other books which represent actual modern speech use *du*, *ihr*, and *Sie* as explained above. In general, poetry, including the poetical drama, rejects *Sie* entirely. *Du* may then be addressed to any person without regard to age or rank, and *ihr* is merely its plural. Or *du* may be familiar (though occasionally addressed to the very highest personages, such as a king, after the manner of the devotional *du*) and be applied to certain

persons only. Then *ihr* is both its plural and also the polite form of address to one person. This polite *ihr* is often written with a capital.

2. A more complicated arrangement is found in much of the older literature and in modern books, particularly plays and novels, that deal with certain phases of provincial life. *Du* is familiar. *Ihr* is its plural and may also be addressed to one person politely. *Er* and *sie* (fem. sing.), then generally written with a capital, may mean *you*. They are used with the singular verb and are commonly less polite than *Ihr* addressed to one person, though originally more polite. Their possessives *sein* and *ihr* then mean *your* and are commonly written with a capital. *Sie* with a plural verb is still more polite, while the title with the singular or plural verb, as explained in § 353, 4, is the most courteous form of address. Observe that *Sie* with plural verb occurs in literature in respectful address in the family, as from wife to husband or from child to parent.

355. The natural distinction between *du* as singular addressed to a person of any rank and *ihr* as its plural disappeared early. *Ihr* was used in polite address to a single person throughout the Middle Ages. Then the title, at first with singular, later also with plural verb, was employed. From it came the use of *er* and *sie* (fem. sing.) with singular verb, and afterwards of *sie* (plural) with plural verb. The latter practice was firmly established by the middle of the eighteenth century and has gained ground since then. *Ihr*, *er*, and *sie* (sing.) have disappeared from general use as forms of address to one person, though they still occur in provincial life and in literature dealing with it. The devotional use of *du* and *ihr* has remained constant.

THIRD PERSON

356. The rule for the agreement of a pronoun with its noun must be observed strictly with the pronouns of the third person also, except as provided in § 350, though the resulting pronoun often runs contrary to our usage; as, *der*

Baum . . . er, die Blume . . . sie. In other words, er does not necessarily mean *he*, or sie *she*, or es *it*.

Substitutes for Pronouns of the Third Person

357. In a multitude of cases German has a demonstrative pronoun or adverb where English would have a third personal pronoun. This substitution may take place when the reference is to any kind of noun, even to one representing a person, but is commonest when the noun represents an inanimate object. The demonstrative words now regularly so used are *der*, *derselbe*, and *da*.

358. Either *der* or *derselbe* may take the place of a third personal pronoun referring to a person. *Der* is then apt to be emphatic, while *derselbe* may prevent ambiguity or a harsh combination of sounds, such as *Sie sie*. But both may be used where a third personal pronoun would be just as good. *Dieser* and *solcher* also occasionally appear where English would have a personal pronoun. Illustrations are: *von dem komm' ich eben I have just come from him*; *die kennst du nicht do you not know her?* *fast hätte ich die vergessen I had almost forgotten them* (= soldiers); *ein Moor, das wiederum seinem Vater gehörte*. *Derselbe sprach oft davon a moor which also belonged to his father*. *He (= father) often spoke of it*; *einige derselben some of them* (= inhabitants); *sie ist im Begriff, neben Heinrich niederzuknien, als dieser die Augen aufschlägt she is on the point of kneeling down by Henry, when he opens his eyes*.

359. When the reference is to inanimate objects, the substitution of a demonstrative is much more common, particularly in the genitive and dative, where it is almost the rule. *Der, derselbe, and occasionally dieser and solcher, are so used; as, nimm meinen Kopf, der wackelt ja schon längst take my head, for it has long been shaky; gleich vor Angst trat er an das Bett, dasselbe lag unberührt pale with fear, he stepped*

up to the bed; it was untouched; der Träger derselben the bearer of it; als wären die herrschenden Klassen vom Schauspiel abgetreten und hätten solchen den bürgerlichen überlassen as if the ruling classes had stepped off the stage and left it to the commoners.

1. The same substitution prevails in reference to the thought of a preceding clause or sentence; as, *ich liebte sie, und sie war dessen nicht wert I loved her, and she was not worthy of it.*

360. For the dative or accusative with a preposition, a compound of *da* (or *dar* before vowels) and the preposition is generally substituted if the reference is not to a living object; as, *der Schuppen brennt. Rettet, was darin ist the shed is burning. Save what is in it; ein großer Schreibtisch, eine Lampe steht darauf a large writing desk, a lamp stands on it; ist aber im Grunde nichts dran but there is in reality nothing to it.* A demonstrative with a preposition may also occur, though far less frequently; the third personal pronoun with a preposition is unusual (§ 361). But a compound with *da* is not usual if it is the antecedent of a relative clause.

1. *Da* is occasionally separated from its preposition in colloquial style, or even dropped entirely; as, *da werde ich verrückt von I'll go crazy about it; nu(n) will er nich(t) mehr von wissen now he won't know any more about it.*

2. Occasionally the compound with *da* refers to persons, especially in a collective sense; as, *eine Witwe hatte zwei Töchter, davon war die eine schön und fleißig a widow had two daughters, one of them was beautiful and industrious; er ist nicht darunter he is not among them.*

3. *Danach* and *darnach* are both of frequent occurrence. Elsewhere *dar* stands before prepositions beginning with a vowel. The *a* of *dar* is often dropped; as, *drum, drin, draus.* *Da* may then be added, especially colloquially; as, *da drin, da draus.* All the common prepositions with the dative or accusative are compounded with *da(r)* except *ohne*. Like some of the less usual prepositions with the dative or accusative and all with the genitive, *ohne* is accompanied by the proper form of *derselbe* or some other demonstrative pronoun; as, *ohne denselben, während dessen. Notice also such adverbs as deswegen therefore and dessenungeachtet notwithstanding.*

361. This substitution of a demonstrative pronoun or adverb for a third personal pronoun is a striking characteristic of German style as compared with English. But the matter is often overstated, especially in regard to the necessity of making the substitution for the genitive and dative and for the dative and accusative with prepositions, when the reference is to things. The best writers do occasionally use the personal pronoun in such relations.

Special Uses of es

362. In addition to its ordinary use as a personal pronoun of the neuter gender, *es*, nominative and accusative singular, is widely employed in other ways:

1. As subject of all kinds of impersonal verbs. See
§ 507.

2. As the indefinite subject, the verb agreeing in number with the predicate, which may be of any gender; as, *es war meine Tochter* *it was my daughter*; *es ist nichts* *it is nothing*; *es sind meine Brüder* *they are (or it is) my brothers*; *Fremde finden es* *they are strangers*.

(a) But notice that *it is I*, *it is he*, *it is you*, etc., are in German *ich bin es*, *er ist es*, *Sie sind es*, etc.

3. As a mere formal subject, a device to put the real subject after the verb. In this use *es* corresponds, in part, to the English expletive *there*, but it is often found where *there* could not be employed; as, *es entsteht ein Streit* *there arises a controversy*; *es kostet nun das fremde Holz am meisten* *foreign wood now costs the most*.

4. As subject or object in anticipation of a following clause or infinitive; as, *es ist kein Wunder, daß ihr denkt zu träumen* *it is no wonder that you think you are dreaming*; *es ist so elend, betteln zu müssen* *it is so wretched to have to beg*; *mein Herz sagt es mir, daß meine Reise glücklich sein wird* *my heart tells me that my journey will be successful*; *ich verschmähe es, durch List zu siegen* *I disdain to win by means of cunning*.

5. As subject, object, or predicate, referring to something already said or which can be understood from what has been already said; as, *vergaß ich sie, geschah's, um sie zu lieben* if *I forgot them, it was in order to love them*; *löse mich! ich weiß, du fannst es release me!* *I know that you can*; *die eine Wand ist es noch* one wall is still (*papered*).

6. As indefinite object in a number of idioms; as, *er hat es gut* he has a fine time of it; *sie hat mir's angetan* she has bewitched me.

7. For the humorous or contemptuous use of *es* with reference to a person see § 350, 3.

REFLEXIVES

363. *Selber* and *selbst*. The indeclinables *selber* and *selbst* are not reflexive but demonstrative pronouns (§ 165). Of the two *selbst* is used far more frequently, but they both have the same meaning and office. They add emphasis and may follow nouns as well as personal and reflexive pronouns, regardless of gender and number, while *selbst* may even precede the word that it emphasizes. They therefore have a much wider use than the English *self*; thus, *selbst eine Prinzessin* even a princess; *Paul selber Paul himself*; *das Ende kommt von selber* the end comes of itself; *ich will ihn gleich selbst holen* I will fetch him myself at once. The dative and accusative reflexive appear without *selber* or *selbst* ordinarily, but one of them commonly accompanies the genitive of a third personal reflexive.

364. First and Second Persons. The oblique cases of the first and second personal pronouns are also used reflexively; as, *ich war außer mir* I was beside myself, *komm zu dir* come to yourself. See also the conjugation of reflexive verbs, § 247.

365. Third Person. The genitive of the third personal pronouns is used reflexively (§ 155, 1). *Sich* is the third

NOTES

1. **Reflexive Pronouns.** A reflexive pronoun is used whenever the subject of the clause is the same as the object or complement of the verb. It is also the reflexive pronoun which is used if the verb has a direct pronoun object, provided the object is the same person. It may, if there is no verb, be assumed that therefore he is mentioned by the construction. Instruments will be found under **Waffen**.

2. **Reflexiveness of the Reflexive.** A reflexive pronoun regularly denotes the subject of the clause in which it stands; as, *Die Mutter ist eine Mutter*; *der Vater ist ein Vater*. Hence, if the verb *sein* implies the subject of the verb, *sein* should be repeated, as *ein Mensch ist ein Mensch*, *sein Sohn ist ein Sohn*, *seine Tochter ist eine Tochter*, *ihre Mutter ist eine Mutter*, etc.

3. When a sentence contains of two or more clauses, the reference of the reflexive in one of the clauses has different subjects; as, *er freute sich über die Freude, wenn er selbst, mit dem Kind aus und ohne Kinder hätte befreut*; *so er auch wieder er hörte daß somebody had shown himself home and smiling*.

4. If part of a sentence such as an infinitive or a participle, is equivalent to a clause, the reference of the reflexive is not to the subject of the sentence but to the subject implied in such part; as, *er bat sie, sich auf ihm zu legen*; *he begged her to support herself on him*.

5. It may, therefore be necessary to use a personal pronoun instead of the reflexive in referring to the subject; as, *er benötigte die ihm günstige Gelegenheit*; *he made use of the opportunity favorable to him*.

6. The reflexive may, however, refer to a noun or pronoun near by instead of to the expressed or implied subject; as, *zuletzt, da ihr jede Weisheit über sich selbst entrissen ist*; finally, when all power over herself has been taken from her; *wie man Benedig nur mit sich selbst vergleichen kann*; *as one can compare Venice only with itself*. *Selbst*, or less often *selber*, is usually added to *sich* in this construction.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

807. **Hin, eind, and sich.** Hin, eind, and sich are frequently used in the dative or accusative reciprocally, that is, with the meaning of *each other, one another*; as, *nachdem wir uns bekannt gemacht hatten,*

stieg er ab after we had made each other's acquaintance, he dismounted; wie lerntet ihr euch kennen how did you get to know each other? die Damen sehen sich an the ladies look at one another.

368. If necessary, the reciprocal sense is made clear:

1. By adding *einander* to the reflexive; as, *die Menschen kennen sich einander nicht men do not know each other.*

2. By omitting the reflexive pronoun and using *einander* (uninflected) or *einer . . . der andere* (inflected); thus, *sie sahen einander nicht an they did not look at each other; die Kinder bitten für einander the children beg for each other; die beiden Männer sahen einer dem andern in das Gesicht the two men looked into each other's face.*

(a) *Sich* is not used as a reciprocal pronoun with a preposition, *einander* taking its place, but either of these words may be used with *über* and *unter*.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

369. For the list of possessive adjectives and their relation to the personal pronouns see § 158. Additional comments are needed only with regard to *sein* and *ihr*. *Sein* refers not only to *er* and *es* but also to *man*, *jemand*, and similar pronouns, to the masculine and neuter singular of other pronouns inflected for gender, to the singular of a masculine or neuter noun, or to a group of words, such as a clause or an infinitive phrase. Such groups are construed as neuters. When *ihr* corresponds to the singular *sie*, it may refer to the feminine of another pronoun inflected for gender, or to a feminine noun in the singular; when it corresponds to the plural *sie*, it may refer to the plural of a noun, to two or more nouns, or to a pronoun (such as *diese* or *solche*) which itself refers to the third person plural. For *sein* or *ihr* referring to neuters like *Weib*, *Mädchen*, etc., see § 350, 1, and for the same words meaning *your* see § 354, 2. For *Ihre* and *bero* in address see § 363, 4.

1. The possessive adjective or pronoun in connection with the genitive or dative of a noun or pronoun indicating the possessor is now old-fashioned; as, *gib mir des Majors seinen dafür give me the major's instead; dem sein Hund sind Sie gewesen you have been his dog.*

2. *Sein* occasionally occurs where we should expect *ihr*, in old-fashioned or careless use. The phrase *seiner Zeit* (or preferably *seiner-zeit*) is frequently found in the sense of *at the proper time, at the time under consideration, in my time*, etc., referring to any noun or pronoun, singular or plural. But *meiner Zeit*, *deiner Zeit*, etc., also occur in the sense *in my time*, etc.

370. Agreement. Like other adjectives, the possessive must agree in gender, number, and case with the noun which it modifies; as, *sage deiner Mutter say to your mother*; *mit seinem Los with his lot*; *in meinen Händen in my hands*. Exceptions are:

1. The possessive is uninflected if it follows its noun; as, *steh auf, du Schwester mein arise, sister mine*. This construction is poetical and uncommon (§ 323).
2. Euer may be without inflection before a title (§ 353, 4); as, *Euer Durchlaucht your serene highness*.
3. The first of two possessives connected by und may be without inflection; as, *dein (but usually deine) und meine Kinder your and my children*.

Repetition of the Possessive Adjective

371. The rules for the repetition of these adjectives are the same as those for the article (§ 266). Illustrations are: *troßdem wußte die Regierung seine Fähigkeit und Frische, seine Bildung und sein Wissen zu schätzen nevertheless the government could esteem his ability and vigor, his culture and knowledge*; *mit ihren Ländern und Söhnen with their lands and sons*. Mein Herr und König denotes one person, the repetition of the possessive would indicate two. Failure to observe the rules occurs, though not frequently; as, *hatten die doch ihren Lohn und Freude, da sie lebten but they had their reward and joy while they lived*. The usual construction would be *ihren Lohn und ihre Freude*.

Substitutes for the Possessive Adjective

372. The substitution of the definite article for any of the possessive adjectives has been discussed in § 261, 4. German may also substitute the genitive of a demonstrative for sein or ihr, as follows:

1. The reference of sein or ihr may be uncertain. A similar ambiguity may arise in English. Thus, in the sentence

he called to his brother and his son, it is uncertain whose son is meant. The probability of such ambiguity is greatly increased in German by the grammatical gender of nouns. It may be removed by substituting *dessen* for *sein*, and *deren* (sing. or pl.) for *ihr*. The reference will then be to the nearest noun or pronoun in question; as, *der Fürst, der Graf und dessen Sohn the prince, the count, and the latter's son*; *sie empfing ihre Freundin und deren Tochter she welcomed her friend and the latter's daughter*. Or a genitive of *derselbe* may serve the same purpose; as, *wie Anton Unwirsch lebte er seit der Geburt seines Kindes nur in der Zukunft deselben like Anton Unwirsch, he lived since the birth of his child only in its future*.

2. The substitution frequently occurs when the possessive would not be ambiguous; as, *Regine setzt sich vor Lotte, nimmt deren Hand Regina sits down in front of Lottie, takes her hand*.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

373. English distinguishes sharply between the possessive adjective and the possessive pronoun, as, for example, in the sentences *this is not your book, I have not seen yours*. German makes a similar distinction, but it has three forms for each of the pronouns instead of only one. For the list of these pronouns see § 158.

1. Of the two forms with the definite article, the longer is perhaps more common in colloquial and the shorter in elevated style, but both are frequent substitutes for the form without the article. All three forms follow the general rule for the agreement of pronouns in gender and number with the nouns to which they refer (§ 349), while their case depends on the construction in which they stand; as, *tu deine Pflicht, ich werde meine tun do your duty, I shall do mine*; *er legte seine Wange gegen die ihrige he laid his cheek against hers*; *wenn das Sünde war, so war's die seinige, die ihre nicht if that was sin, it was his, not hers*.

2. The forms with the article are also used substantively, that is, without reference to a noun, and are then written with a capital; as, *die Seinen schienen spurlos verschwunden the members of his family seemed*

to have completely disappeared. The short form is also used colloquially as a substantive.

In Predicate

374. The uninflected possessives mein, dein, etc., are used freely in the predicate; as, *das Dorf ist unser the village is ours*; *da waren mein die Waren, die Sie retteten then the wares which you saved were mine.* The long forms also occur in the predicate, though less frequently. They are then more emphatic than the uninflected form, or show identity, contrast, etc.; as, *ist eure Sache nicht die meinige is not your cause mine?* But if the subject is the indefinite es, dies, or das, a long form is required; thus, *wem gehört die Feder? Es ist meine to whom does the pen belong? It is mine.* Notice, however, *der Hut . . . er ist mein, die Feder . . . sie ist mein, das Buch . . . es ist mein*, the subject being definite.

DEMONSTRATIVES

Dieser AND jener

375. Dieser and jener are more frequently used as adjectives than as pronouns, but are common in either use. Dieser refers to the nearer in place, time, etc., jener to the remoter. When they are contrasted, dieser corresponds to *this, this . . . here, the latter, etc.*, jener to *that, that . . . there, yonder, the former, etc.* They may be strengthened by adverbs; as, *dieser . . . hier, jener . . . da or dort.* Unless the idea of contrast or remoteness is to be rather clearly indicated, however, dieser is frequently used in the sense of either *this* or *that*. Illustrations of both are: *diesen Vorhang hier this curtain here*; *an jenem Ufer drüben on yonder shore*; *unter diesem und jenem Vorwände on this and that pretext*; *in dieser Gegend in this region*; *jenes Mädchen ist's it is that girl*; *bald besucht mich dieser, bald jener now this one visits me, now that one.*

1. Dies (or dieses) and, occasionally, jenes occur as indefinite

subjects, like *es* (§ 362); as, *dies* sind seine *Handschuhe* *these are his gloves*. *Dies* is also used as subject or object to refer to what has already been said or is yet to be said; as, *teilweise geschah dies schon vor seinem Tod* *this took place, in part, even before his death*. Notice also that *dies* in such a question as *was ist dies?* can refer to any object, regardless of gender.

2. *Dieser*, referring to the nearest noun in question, is often substituted for a third personal pronoun, after the manner of *the latter* in English, where such a pronoun might be ambiguous; as, *der Vater liebt seinen Sohn, aber dieser weiß ihm dafür keinen Dank* *the father loves his son, but the latter is not grateful to him for it*. See also § 358.

Der

376. As Adjective. *Der* does not so definitely indicate either nearness or remoteness as *dieser* or *jener* and may be substituted for either; as, *dieser . . . jener* or *der*; *jener* or *dieser . . . der*. It can also be strengthened by adverbs, such as *hier* and *da*. Though relatively infrequent as a demonstrative adjective, it is far the commonest of the demonstrative pronouns.

377. As Adjective. The definite article and the demonstrative adjective *der* are the same word. The article is unemphatic, the adjective is emphatic and cannot be contracted. In speaking, it is given distinct stress, which must commonly be brought out in English by some other translation than *the*; as, *seit der Zeit since that time*; *auf die Weise* *werde ich nichts erfahren in this way I shall not learn anything*; *in der oder in der Kammer in this or in that chamber*.

1. For ways of distinguishing the demonstrative adjective to the eye, if desired, see § 4. The long forms of the genitive and dative are obsolete in their adjective use.

378. As Pronoun. In addition to its use as a demonstrative, *der* is a frequent substitute for a third personal pronoun (§§ 357–359) or, in the genitive, for a possessive

adjective (§ 372). As a determinative (§ 390), it is generally the first element in the German equivalents of *he who*, *they who*, etc., and stands also before a genitive or a prepositional phrase. Illustrations are: *fein schlimmerer Platz, als der no worse place than that*; *die kommt nicht wieder she will not come back again*; *ich bin der, der es baute I am he who built it*; *mein Garten und der meines Nachbars my garden and that of my neighbor*; *die zu Haus ist meine Stiefmutter the one at home is my stepmother*.

1. For *dero* in address see § 353, 4.

379. The short forms of the genitive, singular and plural, and of the dative plural are common in poetry. They are also still admissible before a dependent genitive or prepositional phrase (§ 390, 1) and are found in the compounds *deswegen*, *deshalb*, etc. Otherwise the long forms are regularly used in modern prose; as, *denen, die schlafen, ist es wohl it is well with those who sleep*; *sie war dessen nicht wert she was not worthy of it*.

380. Use of *deren* and *derer*. Of the two long forms for the genitive plural, *deren* is the one used under most conditions. *Derer* is, however, employed commonly if the explanation of the demonstrative is found in what follows. It occurs especially:

1. If the demonstrative is followed by a relative; as, *die Knie derer, die ihn ansahen the knees of those who beheld him*; *Prüfungen derer, die sich um ein Lehramt bewerben examinations of those who compete for a teacher's position*. But *deren* is employed in the rare case where the governing noun comes between the demonstrative and the relative; as, *da fällt er unter deren Streichen, die er zu deinem Sturze hat vereint he falls under the blows of those whom he brought together for thy overthrow*.

2. Before a genitive or a prepositional phrase; as, *das war also das Fundament des Hauses derer von Zehren so that was the foundation of the house of the von Zehrens*; *und waren*

im Streit gefallen derer von Sankt Gallen zwanzig and there fell in the battle twenty of those from St. Gall.

(a) Sometimes *derer* is used here for persons and *deren* for things. There is also some tendency to employ *derer* as the feminine genitive singular. In other words, the distinction between *derer* and *denen* is not yet fully established.

Special Uses of das

381. *Das* has special uses, corresponding to part of those of *es* (§ 362). It is employed as an indefinite subject, the verb agreeing in number with the predicate noun; as subject or object in reference to what has already been said or is yet to be said; and in the predicate, where it is more emphatic than *es*. Thus, *das war eine lange, große Stube* *that was a long, large room*; *das sind auch keine Heiligen gewesen* *they were not any saints either*; *ich vermied sehr sorgfältig, in die Sonne zu treten*. *Das ging aber nicht überall an* *I very carefully avoided going in the sun*. *That was, however, not possible everywhere*; *sie sind arm, das seid ihr nicht* *they are poor, you are not*. Notice that *das* in such a question as *was ist das?* can refer to any object, regardless of gender. For its humorous or contemptuous use in reference to persons see § 350, 3.

Derselbe

382. *Derselbe* is used either as an adjective or a pronoun and has a wider range of meaning than *the same*. It may be substituted for a personal pronoun (§ 357) or, in the genitive, for a possessive adjective (§ 372). It is used sometimes as a determinative (§ 390). Thus, *du wirst doch derselben Ansicht sein* *you are doubtless of the same opinion*; *aber du bist noch immer ganz dieselbe, Tantchen* *but you are still exactly the same, aunty*; *vergebens suchte er dieselben zu bekämpfen* *he sought vainly to overcome them*.

Derjenige

383. *Derjenige* is a determinative (§ 390) and anticipates a genitive, a prepositional phrase, or, most frequently, a relative clause. In these uses it is more emphatic, though less common, than *der*. It is either an adjective or a pronoun; as, *eine Liste derjenigen Universitätslehrer, die Frauen zu ihren Kollegen zulassen* *a list of the university teachers who admit women to their lectures*; *ich lege dies Drama in die Hände derjenigen, die es gelebt haben* *I commit this drama to those who have lived it*; *er hat sein Geld und daßenige seines Freundes verloren* *he has lost his money and that of his friend*.

Solcher

384. *Solcher*, which is either an adjective or a pronoun, not only corresponds to *such*, but is also used as a substitute for personal pronouns (§ 358), as a determinative (§ 390), and in other relations where we should expect *der*, *derjenige*, etc.; as, *solch ein Wetter ist selten zu solcher Ernte gekommen* *such weather has seldom come along with such a harvest*; *auch solche, die über See zu gehen gedenken also those who plan to cross the sea*; *indem ich solche Bücher las, in denen wunderbare Begebenheiten beschrieben wurden by reading those books in which wonderful occurrences were described*.

385. *So ein*, or *ein so*, is a common colloquial substitute for *solch ein* or *ein solcher*, while *so* (*et*)*was* may be used for the indefinite *solches*. In still freer construction *so kein* is used for *so ein* and a negative. Thus, *nicht so einen Schlüssel not such a key*; *er lebte ein so ruhiges Leben he lived such a peaceful life*; *so (et)was hilft such a thing helps*; *so kein Gesicht sah ich in meinem Leben I never saw such a face in my life*. *So* is also occasionally used in the sense of *solcher*; as, *in so reiner Begeisterung in such genuine enthusiasm*.

OTHER DEMONSTRATIVES

386. For *selber* and *selbst* see § 363 and for *beßgleichen*, *bergleichen*, *derlei*, § 194. In addition may be mentioned here the old-fashioned *sotan such*, an indeclinable adjective.

REPETITION OF DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

387. The rules for the repetition of demonstrative adjectives with two or more nouns in the same construction are the same as those for the article (§ 266).

Substitutes for Demonstrative Pronouns

388. A compound of the demonstrative adverb *da* (or *dar* before vowels) and a preposition is commonly substituted for a demonstrative pronoun following a preposition governing the dative or accusative if the pronoun does not refer to an animate object, and very rarely if it refers to a person. As English generally has a third personal pronoun in such constructions, the whole subject has been considered, for convenience, in connection with such pronouns. See §§ 357-360.

389. A compound with *hier* and a preposition governing the dative or accusative is less frequent; as, *dieser Wunsch wird hiermit erfüllt* *this wish is herewith fulfilled*; *was sagen Sie hierzu* *what do you say to this?* As a survival, *hie* is still occasionally used in such compounds instead of *hier*.

DEMONSTRATIVES AS DETERMINATIVES

390. *Der*, *derjenige*, *derselbe*, *solcher*, and sometimes *jener* may be used determinatively, that is, to point out something explained by a following genitive, prepositional phrase, or relative clause.

i. With following genitive or prepositional phrase; as, *ihre Gesicht gleicht mehr dem eines Mannes, als dem eines Weibes* *her face resembles that of a man more than that of a woman*; *ich meine nicht dieses Buch, sondern dasjenige im roten Einband* *I do not mean this book but that one in red binding*. Other illustrations will be found under the individual demonstratives above.

personal reflexive in the dative and accusative, singular or plural, masculine, feminine, or neuter. It is also the reflexive in these two cases of *Sie you*, and of other pronouns requiring the verb to be in the third person. It may, of course, refer to a noun. Its meaning must therefore be determined by the connection. Illustrations will be found below.

366. Reference of the Reflexive. A reflexive pronoun regularly refers to the subject of the clause in which it stands; as, *die Mutter ist ganz außer sich* *mother is completely beside herself*; *alles, was Sie über sich gesagt haben* *all that you said about yourself*; *todesmatt warf er sich unter einen Baum* *tired to death, he threw himself down under a tree*.

1. When a sentence consists of two or more clauses, the reference of the reflexive will change if the clauses have different subjects; as, *er freute sich wie ein Kind, wenn er erfuhr, daß sich jemand brav und stark erwiesen hatte* *he rejoiced like a child whenever he learned that somebody had shown himself brave and strong*.

2. If part of a sentence, such as an infinitive or a participle, is equivalent to a clause, the reference of the reflexive is not to the subject of the sentence but to the subject implied in such part; as, *er bat sie, sich auf ihn zu stützen* *he begged her to support herself on him*.

(a) It may therefore be necessary to use a personal pronoun instead of the reflexive in referring to the subject; as, *er benützte die ihm günstige Gelegenheit* *he made use of the opportunity favorable to him*.

3. The reflexive may, however, refer to a noun or pronoun near by instead of to the expressed or implied subject; as, *zuletzt, da ihr jede Gewalt über sich selbst entrissen ist* *finally, when all power over herself has been taken from her*; *wie man Venedig nur mit sich selbst vergleichen kann* *as one can compare Venice only with itself*. *Selbst*, or less often *selber*, is usually added to *sich* in this construction.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

367. *Uns*, *euch*, and *sich* are frequently used in the dative or accusative reciprocally, that is, with the meaning of *each other*, *one another*; as, *nachdem wir uns bekannt gemacht hatten*,

stieg er ab after we had made each other's acquaintance, he dismounted; wie lerntet ihr euch kennen how did you get to know each other? die Damen sehen sich an the ladies look at one another.

368. If necessary, the reciprocal sense is made clear:

1. By adding *einander* to the reflexive; as, *die Menschen kennen sich einander nicht men do not know each other.*

2. By omitting the reflexive pronoun and using *einander* (uninflected) or *einer . . . der andere* (inflected); thus, *sie sahen einander nicht an they did not look at each other; die Kinder bitten für einander the children beg for each other; die beiden Männer sahen einer dem andern in das Gesicht the two men looked into each other's face.*

(a) *Sich* is not used as a reciprocal pronoun with a preposition, *einander* taking its place, but either of these words may be used with *über* and *unter*.

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1. The possessive adjective or pronoun in connection with the genitive or dative of a noun or pronoun indicating the possessor is now old-fashioned; as, *gib mir des Majors seinen dafür give me the major's instead; dem sein Hund sind Sie gewesen you have been his dog.*

2. *Sein* occasionally occurs where we should expect *ihr*, in old-fashioned or careless use. The phrase *seiner Zeit* (or preferably *seiner-zeit*) is frequently found in the sense of *at the proper time, at the time under consideration, in my time*, etc., referring to any noun or pronoun, singular or plural. But *meiner Zeit*, *deiner Zeit*, etc., also occur in the sense *in my time*, etc.

Welcher

396. *Welcher* is either an adjective or a pronoun; as, *welche Sprache* *which language?* *welch* *feltne Stimmen hör' ich* *what strange voices do I hear?* *welch* *ein prächtiges Kind* *what a splendid child!* *welch Glück,* *geliebt zu werden* *what happiness to be loved!* *welcher von* *Ihren Söhnen* *which of your sons?* For the dropping of endings see § 170. *Welch* *ein* and undeclined *welch* before an adjective occur oftenest in exclamations. For *was* *für* *welcher* see § 398, 1.

1. The neuter singular *welches* may, like *es* (§ 362), be used as an indefinite subject, the verb agreeing in number with the predicate noun; as, *welches* *find* *ihre Kinder* *which are her children?*

Was für

397. As Adjective. The singular is ordinarily *was für* *ein*, the plural *was für*; as, *was für* *einen Stock* *haben Sie da* *what kind of a stick have you there?* *was für* *ein edles Gesicht* *what a noble countenance!* *mit was für Pferden* *with what kind of horses?* *Für* may be separated from *was*; as, *was* *find* *das* *für Dienste* *what kind of services are they?* *Ein* is dropped before the singular of names of materials and often before abstract nouns; as, *was für* *Fleisch* *what kind of meat?* *was hätte sie denn* *für Freude* *an ihrem einzigen Sohn* *what joy would she then have in her only son?*

398. As Pronoun. The singular is ordinarily *was für* *einer*, the plural *was für*; as, *ein Fremder?* *was für* *einer* *a stranger?* *what kind of one?* *in dem Parke wuchsen* *hohe Bäume.* *Was für tall trees grew in the park.* *What kind?* *Einer* is dropped in referring to the singular of a noun of material; as, *du hast Wein getrunken.* *Was für* *you have been drinking wine.* *What kind?*

1. Instead of *was für* as a plural or referring to the singular of a noun of material, *was für* *welcher* may be used. *Welcher* is then declined accord-

ing to the construction; as, *hohe Bäume*. *Was für welche?* Both *was* *für* and *was für welcher* in these two constructions are colloquial rather than literary.

Interrogatives in Exclamations

399. The interrogatives are used freely in exclamations, as several of the German sentences above show. For the order of words in exclamatory sentences see § 639.

RELATIVES

400. The relative pronoun is often omitted in English or placed within its clause; thus, *the friends we saw yesterday*; *the disaster, the news of which has just come to us*. German, on the other hand, does not omit the relative, and regularly places it at the beginning of its clause. This rule for position applies also to a prepositional phrase containing a relative, such as *an dem*, and to a compound composed of a relative adverb and a preposition, such as *womit*. Illustrations will be found in the paragraphs below.

401. **Der** and **welcher** are the ordinary relatives. They refer regularly to some noun or pronoun in the same sentence and apply both to persons and to things. Therefore they each represent *who*, *which*, and *that*. As subjects, they always require their verb to be in the third person.

Der

402. **Der** is far the commonest of the relative pronouns, and is used freely in all cases of the singular and plural; as, *ein Mensch, der nie mit sich selbst zufrieden ist*, *und dem es daher niemand zu Danke machen kann* *a person who is never satisfied with himself and whom therefore nobody can please*; *an ihres Vaters Haus vorbei*, *in das sie hineinsprang past her father's house, into which she hurried*; *Zahlen in langen Reihen*, *bei deren Anschauen ihm schon schwindlig wurde figures in long columns, at the very sight of which he grew dizzy*. As a relative, **der** is not used adjectively.

1. Some of the uses of the neuter singular are discussed under *was*. See § 410, 1-3.

2. *Der* may also be employed as a compound relative without an antecedent with the force of *wer*; as, *die mir die Nächsten sind am Blut, verlassen, verraten mich those who are next of kin to me desert, betray me.*

Welcher

403. As Pronoun. The genitive, singular and plural, hardly occurs now as a pronoun. Otherwise *welcher* is used freely for *der* except after a personal pronoun or a noun in direct address; as, *ein Baum, welcher keine Früchte trägt a tree that bears no fruit*; *er trug einen Kasten, in welchem er allerhand Waren hatte he carried a box in which he had all sorts of wares*; *die Franzosen, welche dies in der Ferne sahen the French, who saw this in the distance*. *Welcher* occurs only rarely after a first or second personal pronoun, and somewhat more frequently after one of the third person.

1. Some of the uses of the neuter singular are discussed under *was*. See § 410, 1-3.

2. *Welcher* occasionally occurs in poetry in its old force as an indefinite relative equivalent to *wer* (§ 407).

404. As Adjective. *Welcher* is occasionally used as a relative adjective, retaining then its own genitive; as, *Ciceron, welches großen Redners Schriften ich kenne Cicero, the writings of which great orator I am acquainted with.*

405. Als before Relatives. *Als* was formerly often used before *der*, *welcher*, and the compounds of *wo* (§ 412) and gave to the relative clause a causal meaning; as, *Lessing wird zitiert, als welchem die Pflichten des höflichen Umgangs fatal gewesen seien Lessing is cited as being one to whom the duties of polite intercourse were annoying*. The construction lingered on through the classic period, though *als* gradually lost its force, and the combination finally meant no more than the relative alone.

Relatives after Personal Pronouns and Nouns in Address

406. 1. The verb of a relative clause following a personal pronoun or a noun in address must be in the third

person, unless a first or second personal pronoun is inserted; as, *ich, der jeden Baum kennt daherum I, who know every tree around there; wer bist du, der zu mir spricht who art thou who speakest to me?*

(a) If *Sie* or *ihr* is used of one person, the relative following is in the singular and also the verb governed by it; as, *seid ihr's, der seines Vorteils so vergaßt is it you who so forgot his own interests?*

2. Generally this difference between the person of the pronoun before the relative and the verb after it is removed by making the verb agree with a pronoun of the first or second person inserted immediately after the relative; as, *Der, der du bist fool that thou art; wir, die wir jetzt jung sind we who are now young; Mäusen, die ihr die herzliche Liebe begünstigt ye Muses, who favor heartfelt love.* Even a pronoun of the third person is often inserted after the relative, though unnecessary. Only very rarely is the verb put in the first or second person without the insertion of the personal pronoun.

Wer

407. *Wer* is a compound, or indefinite, relative pronoun, commonly combining in itself both antecedent and relative. It applies only to persons, and means *whoever, anybody who, he who, etc.* It has no plural and, as subject, requires its verb to be in the third person singular; as, *wer mit einem Fuhrwerk der Pfarrer vorbei mußte, hüttete sich vor allem Lärm whoever had to pass by the rectory with a vehicle guarded against all noise; ich liebe, wer mir Gutes tut, und hasse, wer mich verletzt I love him who benefits me and hate him who injures me.* If some definite person is meant, *wer* should not be used.

1. *Wer* is sometimes followed by a demonstrative referring to it. The insertion commonly takes place if the clauses call for different cases; as, *wessen Antlitz also geschaffen ist, der trägt ein rauhes Herz im Busen whose face is so formed, he has*

an unfeeling heart in his bosom. The demonstrative may also be inserted to give greater vigor to the second clause; as, *wer dir es jetzt gesagt hat, der wird nichts Böses damit gemeint haben whoever said it to you just now, (he) surely meant nothing bad by it.*

2. Occasionally *wer* is followed in colloquial style by a noun to which it refers; as, *wen ich nicht gefunden, war der Marshall the one I didn't find was the marshal.*

3. Only very rarely does *wer* refer to a preceding demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, such as *der, jeder, or niemand*; as, *den schreit der Berg nicht, wer darauf geboren the mountain does not frighten him who was born on it.* *Der* is the usual relative here. See § 418.

408. *Wer*, and also *der* in older construction, may have conditional force; as, *wer dich so fände if some one should find you doing this!*

Was

409. *Was* is also a compound, or indefinite, relative meaning *whatever, what, that which, etc.* It has no plural and, as subject, requires its verb to be in the third person singular; as, *was gerecht ist, verdient Lob whatever is just deserves praise; ich weiß nicht, was Sie meinen I do not know what you mean.* It may also be followed in the next clause by a demonstrative to which it refers; as, *was einer nicht hat, das kann er auch nicht geben what one does not have, that he cannot give either.*

1. *Was* sometimes has conditional force (§ 408). With similar meaning it is also used with *angehen, betreffen, an(be)langen;* as, *was uns betrifft so far as we are concerned.* It is also found in the sense of *as much as, as fast as, etc.;* thus, *er ergreift den Hammer und hämmert, was er hämmern kann he seizes the hammer and hammers as hard as he can.*

410. With Indefinite Antecedent. *Was*, unlike *wer*, often has an antecedent in the form of a preceding neuter pronoun, neuter substantive adjective, and the like. That is, it has as its antecedent such words as *das, alles, etwas, nichts,*

manches, viel, wenig, das Gute, das Beste, etc., if they are used in a general way and do not refer to some definite object; thus, ich sagte ihr alles, was ich wußte *I told her all that I knew*; er wurde über dem, was er sah, nicht froh *he was not made happy by what he saw*; 's ist das Letzte, was der Mensch hat *it's the last thing that man has*. This construction is mostly found in the nominative and accusative, the genitive being only infrequently so used.

1. As we should expect from the analogy of the English construction, das frequently follows such antecedents, while welches is so used only rarely; as, als etwas, das sich von selbst verstand *as something that was a matter of course*; um mich geht manches vor, das mich betrifft *much that concerns me is happening about me*; an diesen Freund schreibe ich noch einiges, welches er dir mitteilen wird *I shall write to this friend something additional which he will communicate to you*. The construction with was, however, is not only much the commoner at present but seems to be growing in favor.

2. If the reference is to the thought of a preceding clause or to the equivalent of a clause, was is now the commonest relative; as, er führte sie, was er nie zuvor getan *he kissed her, which he had never done before*. Welches is now less frequent in this construction than formerly, and das is rare; as, wenn man vernünftig und ruhig leben will, welches denn doch zuletzt eines jeden Menschen Wunsch bleibt *if one wants to live sensibly and quietly, which then after all is the wish of everybody*; sie bat mich, einige Äpfel anzunehmen, das ich tat *she begged me to accept some apples, which I did*.

3. If a clause has es for its subject and a noun in the predicate, a relative clause referring to it is commonly introduced by was in case the predicate noun does not refer to a person; as, es ist nicht irdische Musik, was mich so fröhlich macht *it is not earthly music that makes me so happy*. Der and welcher, inflected for gender and number, are sometimes used instead of was. But if the predicate noun refers to a person, was is uncommon.

411. With Definite Antecedent. The use of was in reference to a neuter noun is fairly common in familiar speech

and by no means unknown in literature; as, *so daß ich jedes Wort, was gesprochen wurde, vernehmen konnte so that I could hear every word that was spoken.* The tendency of the language is, however, away from the use of *was* in reference to a definite antecedent.

1. **Referring to Persons.** In the speech of the uneducated *was* may have as its antecedent a noun meaning a person; as, *dann bin ich zum Gastwirt Merdel gegangen, was der Schulz ist then I went to innkeeper Merckel, who is the magistrate.* It is also equivalent to *wor* occasionally and is so found in dignified literature; as, *früh übt sich, was ein Meister werden will he begins early who wishes to become a master.* See also § 350, 3.

Substitutes for Relatives

412. **Wo** (or **wor** before vowels) compounded with a preposition is a frequent substitute for the dative or accusative of a relative governed by a preposition. For the prepositions so used see § 360, 3. The substitution occurs as follows:

1. Regularly, if the reference is to an indefinite antecedent (see § 410); as, *so was erinnert einen manchmal, woran man nicht gern erinnert sein will such a thing reminds one often of what one does not wish to be reminded;* *ein Narr fragt viel, worauf kein Weiser antworten könnte a fool asks much which a wise man could not answer.*

2. Frequently, if the reference is to a noun or pronoun not denoting a person; as, *das Maß, womit sie die Dinge mißt the measure with which she measures things;* *das alte Geld und die Ketten meiner seligen Mutter, wovon noch nichts verkauft ist the old coins and the chains of my deceased mother, of which nothing has yet been sold;* *die gräßliche Gefahr, woein ich die Geliebten stürzte the horrible danger into which I plunged my dear ones.*

3. Rarely, if the reference is to a noun or pronoun denoting a person; as, *zwei kleine Schulknaben, wovon der eine zum andern sagte two schoolboys, of whom the one said to the other.*

(a) Occasionally *wo* and the preposition are separated by intervening words; as, *mit dem Bloß . . . wo du vorhin von sprachst with the block . . . of which you spoke a little while ago.*

413. *Da* may be found in such compounds instead of *wo*; as, *nach der Hütte, drin ich wohne to the hut in which I dwell.* This is a survival of the former relative use of *da* and belongs now to the language of poetry.

OTHER RELATIVE WORDS

414. Two or three equivalents of the relative pronouns are so uncommon as to need no mention here. One or two others are found among the translations of *such as* in § 419. The following occur more frequently:

1. *So* was once rather common as a relative. It still occurs in poetry and in old-fashioned or humorous prose; as, *was ist das, so vor mir liegt im Sand what is that which lies before me in the sand?*

2. *Wo* is common as a relative pronoun in the speech of the uneducated and so often finds its way into books; as, *die, wo ringsum begraben liegen those who lie buried round about.*

3. Adverbs, such as *wie* and *wo*, are used freely, as in English, with relative force; as, *an Orten, wo etwas zu gewinnen ist at places where something can be won; vor sieben Jahren, wo mich der Arzt in die Berge schickte seven years ago, when the physician sent me to the mountains.* *Da*, which is now regularly demonstrative, lingers on also in the sense of *wo*. See § 413.

Adverbs Added to Relatives

415. *Auch, immer, auch immer, nur, and nur immer* are often added to relative pronouns and adverbs, with generalizing, indefinite, or concessive force, equivalent to *ever, soever, no matter, etc.*, though they do not always lend themselves to translation into English. They may immediately follow the relative or be separated from it by other words; as, *wer ihr auch sein mögt whoever you may be; sei ich, wer auch immer no matter who I am; aus welchem Grund immer on whatever grounds; die mannigfaltige Habe, die ein Haus nur verbirgt the manifold possessions which a house conceals. Bloß, when equivalent to *nur*, is used in the same way; thus, was hat die bloß what in the world is the matter with her?*

416. *Da* is also added to relatives. Sometimes it may be rendered by *ever*; often it admits of no translation into English; as, *komme, was da will come what(ever) will*; *die Reiter, die da famen the troopers that came*. This construction is now rather old-fashioned.

CORRELATIVE PRONOUNS

417. Under this heading is discussed the way of rendering such phrases as *he who, she who, the one who, they who, those who, whoever, that which, whatever, and such as*. The subject has necessarily been treated piecemeal in the preceding paragraphs, and a brief summary is made here.

418. The first element in such phrases is regularly a demonstrative, not a personal, pronoun, while the second element is the relative *der* or *welcher*. The commonest demonstrative is, of course, *der*, and the next commonest *derjenige*, but other demonstratives are also used. Some of the commonest combinations, in the nominative, referring to persons are:

der, der; or der, welcher
 die, die; or die, welche
 derjenige, der; or derjenige, welcher
 diejenigen, die; or diejenigen, welche

Illustrations are: *der ist kein Wohlgesinnter, der von diesem Fest weglebt* *he is not well-disposed who remains away from this feast*; *die, welche sagen those who say*; *natürlich konnten diejenigen, die das behaupteten, nur Neider sein of course, those who asserted that could only be envious*; *nicht jenen werd' ich's offenbaren, die nur aus Ohnmacht sich vor Sünde wahren I shall not reveal it to those who only from weakness guard themselves against sin*; *von solchen, die ihm ganz nahe standen by those who were very near to him*. For *das, was*, rather than *das, das* or *das, welches*, see § 410.

1. These phrases may be general, referring to no definite person or persons. Or they may mean a definite person or persons, made definite,

however, by the relative clause following. Therefore they reject the personal pronoun in the first member and use the demonstrative. The combinations *er*, *der* or *welcher*, and *sie*, *die* or *welche* are possible if the person meant has already been mentioned and the relative clause merely adds to our knowledge; as, *er*, *der sich dem Freunde ganz hingab he* (= the dramatist Hebbel) *who was entirely devoted to his friend*; *und sie erschien, sic, die ihr kennt and she appeared, she whom you know*.

2. On the other hand, *wer* and *was* are used if it is desired to make the reference still more indefinite. See § 407, 1 for *wer*, and § 409 for *was* in this construction. For *der* with the force of *wer* see § 402, 2.

419. Such as. This phrase is frequently rendered by *solcher* and the relative *der* or *welcher*, thus coming under § 418. In fact, *solcher* followed by a dependent relative is often best translated by *he who*, etc. Thus, *solche Bilder, die gar keinen Kunstwert haben such pictures as have no artistic value at all*; *solche, die über See zu gehen gedenken those who intend to cross the sea*.

1. *Solcher* may be followed in the next clause by *wie* or, less frequently, by *als*, *desgleichen*, or *dergleichen* instead of *der* or *welcher*. *Derartig, derlei, so ein*, etc. may stand instead of *solcher* and be followed by a relative or by *wie*, *als*, etc.

INDEFINITES

420. Only a few of the indefinites need to be mentioned here. The use of the others conforms closely to that of other adjectives and pronouns.

421. *All* now regularly appears as a substantive only in the neuter singular or in the plural. Before the definite article, a possessive, or other pronominals it is commonly not inflected now, though it may be declined in full or appear throughout as *alle*; thus, *unter all (or allen) seinen Bekannten among all his acquaintances*; *bei alle seinem Elend in all his misery*. The invariable form *alle*, meaning *used up, gone, sold*, etc., occurs frequently in familiar speech in predicate; as, *menn dein bisschen Geld alle ist when your little bit of money*

is gone. The definite article is commonly not used after all unless it is emphatic or determinative.

422. *Ander* is used freely with or without a noun, but must be inflected in predicate. If *another* means *one more*, not *a different one*, it is noch *ein(er)*.

423. *Beides*, neuter singular, still occurs frequently. Otherwise only the plural is in common use. *Alle beide* means simply *both*. *Both . . . and* is generally rendered by *sowohl . . . als*.

424. *Ein wenig*, *ein bißchen* *a little*, and *ein paar* *a few* are indeclinable; as, in *ein paar Jahren* *in a few years*. *Ein Paar* means *a pair*.

1. If a pronominal takes the place of *ein*, *wenig* is declined; *paār* remains uninflected and the pronominal takes the case of the noun following; *bißchen* is uninflected and the pronominal is declined in the neuter singular to show the case; as, *das wenige Geld* *the little money*; in *diesen paar Tagen* *in these few days*; *sein bißchen Armut mit mir zu teilen* *to share his little all* (*literally poverty*) *with me*.

425. *Ginig*, though not uncommon in literature, is little used in the singular in everyday speech, its place being taken by *etwas*, *ein wenig*, etc. Its plural is, however, very common.

1. The mere omission of the article (§ 261, 1 b) is generally sufficient to indicate the idea of the adjective *some* in German. If, however, it is desired to put a word for *some* before the noun, *etwas* is regularly used with the singular and *einige* with the plural; as, *bestellen Sie Tee und etwas kalten Abendmitt* *für mich* *order tea and some cold meat for me*; *einige Fragen* *some questions*.

426. *Man*, originally the same word as *Mann man*, now occurs only as the subject of a verb in the third person singular, and means *one* or *you*, *they*, *people*, and the like in their indefinite sense. Its possessive is *sein* and its reflexive *sich*; as, *im Anfang ist man glücklich* *one is happy in the beginning*; *man mag noch so eingezogen leben, so wird man, ehe man sich's versieht*, *ein Schuldner oder ein Gläubiger* *no matter how retired a life a person leads he becomes, before he is aware*

of *it, debtor or creditor*. Notice, as in this last sentence, the repetition *man . . . man*, not *man . . . er*. For the missing cases of *man* the proper case of *einer*, less frequently of *wir*, is employed; as, *wenn einem alles neu ist when everything is new to one*.

427. *Viel* is commonly without inflection in the singular if not preceded by the definite article or a pronominal. Inflection is the rule in the singular after such words, and also in the plural under all circumstances; as, *der Gesandte macht mir viel Verdrüß the ambassador causes me much vexation*; *vom vielen Wachen from much watching*; *viele glauben many believe*.

428. *Wenig* follows the same rules as *viel* in its declension. The comparative *weniger* may be declined, but is oftener left uninflected.

Irgend with Indefinites

429. The adverb *irgend*, with the force of *any, some, some or other*, etc., is used freely before several of the indefinites and a number of other words, mainly adverbs, to make them more general or indefinite in meaning; as, *er ist an irgend wen geschrieben it (= letter) is written to somebody or other*; *irgendwo somewhere or other*; *wenn Sie irgend können if you at all can*; *ist irgend eine Hoffnung vorhanden is there any hope whatever?*

USES OF THE CASES

430. The following statements concerning the cases apply to nouns and to words used as nouns, such as pronouns, adjectives, numerals, and infinitives. Words used adjectively, such as descriptive and pronominal adjectives and numerals, have, of course, the case of the noun which they modify.

NOMINATIVE

431. Subject. The nominative is the case of the subject; as, *der König steht zu seiner Rechten the king stands on his right*; *du bist nun groß you are big now*.

432. Predicate. The nominative stands in the predicate:

1. With *sein*, *werden*, *scheinen* (*seem*), *bleiben*, *heißen* (*be called*), and a few other verbs; also with the passive of verbs of calling and naming (§ 487); as, *du bist ein prächtiger Kerl* *you are a fine fellow*; *Wilhelm von der Normandie wird der Eroberer genannt* *William of Normandy is called the Conqueror*.

(a) *Werden*, in the sense of *changing into*, may take *zu* and the dative; as, *der Schnee wird zu Wasser* *the snow is turning to water*.

(b) The infinitive of the verbs above, if dependent on *lassen*, may be followed by either the accusative or the nominative, generally the former; as, *laß mich deinen (or dein) Freund sein* *let me be your friend*.

2. Accompanied by *als*, the predicate nominative appears with a number of verbs; as, *ich stehe hier als Bevollmächtigter von Stein und Sohn* *I stand here as the attorney of Stein and Son*; *und doch erschien das alles als leere Formsfache* *and yet all that seemed an empty formality*. The omission of *als* with such verbs is poetical. See also § 475, as this construction with *als* may be considered an appositional predicate.

433. Vocative. The nominative is the case of direct address; as, *gebt acht, ihr Herren* *pay attention, gentlemen*; *Lieber, das weiß ich nicht* *my dear, I do not know (that)*. It is also the case commonly used in exclamations; as, *welch ein Ausgang* *what an ending!* See also § 610.

434. Absolute. A nominative absolute occasionally occurs; as, *die Zwerge, der gefrönte ausgenommen* *the dwarfs, except the one crowned*. The accusative absolute is the regular construction in German. See § 471.

435. For the nominative in apposition and after *als* and *wie* see the subject of apposition, §§ 473-476. The nominative occurs occasionally in a few constructions where another case would be in regular use, as explained in later paragraphs.

GENITIVE

436. The genitive corresponds roughly to the English genitive (or so-called possessive) or to phrases with *of*. It occurs, however, more frequently than these constructions in English, as it is often dependent on verbs and appears in other combinations expressed very differently in English. Its use is decreasing in German prose, where it is waging a losing fight, particularly with the accusative and with prepositional phrases.

Genitive with Nouns

437. Classification. The genitive dependent on nouns has most often the force of an adjective. The following classification gives the most important relations of the genitive to its noun:

1. Genitive of possession or connection, denoting the owner or indicating cause, origin, relationship, etc.; as, *des Kaisers Schloß* *the emperor's castle*; *die Straßen der Stadt* *the streets of the city*; *Schillers Tell* *Schiller's Tell*; *der Sohn des armen Arbeiters* *the son of the poor laborer*.

(a) For the old-fashioned use of both the genitive of the possessor and a possessive adjective with the same noun see § 369, 1.

2. Partitive genitive, also called the genitive of the whole, indicating a whole of which the governing word is a part. See § 448.

3. Genitive of material or composition; as, *ein Becher edlen Goldes* *a goblet of fine gold*; *ein Dach schattender Buchen* *a roof of shady beeches*. The genitive of material is unusual in prose, being superseded by *von* or *aus* with the dative.

4. Descriptive genitive; as, *der Gott der Gnade* *the God of mercy*; *ein Mann mittleren Alters* *a middle-aged man*.

5. Explanatory genitive, explaining or defining the noun,

also called the appositional genitive or genitive of specification; as, ein Gefühl des Stolzes *a feeling of pride*; mit einem Seufzer des Neides *with a sigh of envy*. For constructions like die Stadt London, Ende Mai, etc., where we should expect the genitive after the analogy of English, see under apposition, § 474.

6. Subjective genitive, showing the subject of the action indicated by the governing noun; as, des Sturmes Sausen *the roaring of the storm*; ferner Gesang heimkehrender Feldarbeiter *distant singing of field laborers returning home*.

7. Objective genitive, showing the object of the action indicated by the governing noun; as, in Erwartung feliger Stunden *in expectation of blissful hours*; die Liebe der Freiheit *the love of freedom*.

438. Governing Word. The genitives just described depend generally on a noun. A substantive adjective may be modified by a noun or pronoun in the genitive, or may itself be in the genitive modifying a noun or pronoun; as, alles Beschränkende der Strafen *the confinement of the streets*; achtzig Wagen dieser Freiwilligen *eighty carriages of these volunteers*. The genitive does not modify a personal pronoun; the genitive of a personal pronoun seldom modifies a noun, its place being commonly taken by a possessive adjective, a demonstrative pronoun, or a prepositional phrase. It occurs occasionally as an objective genitive; as, in der Unkenntnis seiner selbst *in his ignorance of himself*. See also the partitive genitive, § 448, 449. Other pronouns may, with varying degrees of frequency, either be in the genitive modifying a substantive or be themselves modified by the genitive of a substantive; as, ihr Gesicht gleicht mehr dem eines Mannes, als dem eines Weibes *her face is more like that of a man than that of a woman*; der Träger derselben *the bearer of it*. For numerals see under the partitive genitive, § 448, 1.

1. The governing word is sometimes omitted. This is particularly true if it is a demonstrative or a word for *family*, *house*, etc., with names of persons; as, sein Gesicht schon wie eines Toten *his face already like a dead man's*; bei Werners at Werners'.

439. Position. In poetry and elevated prose the genitive freely precedes or follows its noun. If it precedes, the article is regularly omitted before the noun. In ordinary prose the genitive generally

follows its noun. The genitives of possession and origin and the subjective genitive, particularly if they are the names of persons, precede their nouns more often than the others.

440. Substitution of von for Genitive. Von with the dative may be substituted for the genitive in most of the uses described in § 437. It is especially common in avoiding a harsh combination of genitives and under the following conditions:

1. When the noun does not take the genitive ending and is not preceded by a declined modifier; thus, *die Straßen von Paris* *the streets of Paris*.
2. Regularly with the names of towns and countries in titles, names of persons, and the like; as, *der König von Sachsen* *the king of Saxony*; *die Jungfrau von Orleans* *the Maid of Orleans*.
3. Often for the descriptive genitive and the genitive of material, regularly so if the noun is not preceded by a declined modifier; as, *ein Mann von Vermögen* *a man of means*; *nach den Bettlern von Stein* *at the beggars of stone*. Aus is also common with names of materials.
4. Regularly for the explanatory genitive in such phrases as: *Schurke von einem Wichte* *rascal of a landlord*; *ein Wunder von einem Pferde* *a wonderful horse*. In familiar speech the noun or substantive after von in this construction is occasionally not declined for case if unmodified.
5. In a number of partitive constructions (§ 449, 4).

Genitive with Adjectives

441. Some adjectives govern the genitive. They correspond, in the main, to those followed by *of* in English; as, *des langen Harrens müde* *tired of the long waiting*; *ich war so vieler Liebe nicht wert* *I was not worthy of so much love*; *des bist du so gewiß* *you are so sure of that?*

1. These adjectives are:

<i>bar bare</i>	<i>gewärtig expectant</i>	<i>schuldig guilty</i>
<i>bedürftig in need</i>	<i>gewiß certain</i>	<i>sicher certain</i>
<i>benötigt in need</i>	<i>gewohnt used</i>	<i>teilhaft sharing</i>
<i>bewußt conscious</i>	<i>habhaft in possession</i>	<i>überbrüfig weary</i>
<i>bloß bare</i>	<i>fundig acquainted</i>	<i>verdächtig suspicious</i>
<i>(ein)geben! mindful</i>	<i>ledig free</i>	<i>verlustig deprived of</i>
<i>einig agreed</i>	<i>leer empty</i>	<i>vermutend expecting</i>
<i>erfahren experienced</i>	<i>los rid</i>	<i>versichert assured</i>
<i>fähig capable</i>	<i>mächtig in control</i>	<i>voll full</i>
<i>frei free</i>	<i>müde tired</i>	<i>wert worthy</i>
<i>froh glad</i>	<i>quitt rid</i>	<i>würdig worthy</i>
<i>gewahr aware</i>	<i>fatt sated</i>	

and a few others. Compounds of these words with *un* also govern the genitive.

2. A few of the adjectives in this list may have a prepositional phrase instead of the genitive. The dative is also possible with two or three. *Gewahr*, *gewohnt*, *habhaft*, *los*, *fatt*, and *vermutend* may govern the accusative. This last construction seems to have arisen through mistaking the old genitive *eß* (§ 154, 3) for an accusative, which led to the use of the accusative of other words.

3. *Voll*, in predicate or in apposition, follows the model of nouns of quantity (§ 449) in the government of its dependent noun; as, *voll edler Metalle* *full of precious metals*; *voll Wasser* *full of water*; *voll von hohen Gedanken* *filled with lofty thoughts*. For *voller* see § 325, 1.

Genitive in Predicate

442. The genitive may also stand in the predicate; as, *oder du bist des Todes* *or you are a dead man*; *der größte Teil der Fürsten ist unserer Gesinnung* *the majority of the princes are of our opinion*.

Genitive with Verbs

443. **As Sole Object.** The genitive is used with a number of verbs in poetry and elevated prose as the sole object; as, *er braucht des Arztes* *he needs a physician*; *sie spotteten dein und meiner* *they mock thee and me*; *schont seines Schmerzens* *spare his grief*.

1. Such verbs are:

achten	heed	genießen	enjoy	spotten	mock
bedürfen	need	gewahren	perceive	verfehlten	miss
begehn	desire	harren	wait	vergessen	forget
brauchen	need	hüten	guard	verlangen	desire
entbehren	lack	lachen	laugh	wahren	guard
erwähnen	mention	mangeln	lack	wahrnehmen	perceive
gebrauchen	use	pflegen	nurse	walten	rule
gedenken	think	schonen	spare	warten	wait

and others of less frequent occurrence. All the verbs of this list may have, and many of them prefer, a different construction in ordinary prose. The list could be much lengthened by the addition of verbs that formerly governed the genitive but now regularly have the accusative or a prepositional phrase. A few other verbs still govern the genitive in some set phrases; as, des Todes sterben to die the death; Hungers sterben to die of hunger; Versteckens spielen to play hide and seek.

444. As Partitive. A genitive, showing that the object is taken only in part, or the like, still occurs occasionally with a few verbs; as, jetzt, da ich der Liebe habe *now that I have love*; sorgsam brachte die Mutter des klaren herrlichen Weines *the mother carefully brought (some) of the clear excellent wine*.

1. Only genießen, in the sense of *partake of*, has this genitive with any frequency, and even it oftener takes the accusative. Other verbs, such as essen, trinken, geben, bringen, regularly express the partitive idea by von with the dative, or by the accusative either unmodified or preceded by a word for *some*. A few stereotyped phrases, however, are not so uncommon; as, sich Rats erholen to get advice.

445. As Secondary Object. Many verbs take an accusative of the person and a genitive of the thing in poetry and elevated prose, though most of them either allow or prefer some other construction instead of the genitive in ordinary prose. They are:

1. Transitives; as, wen zeiht man des Mordes whom do they accuse of the murder? des Eides gegen mich entlaß' ich sie I release them from their oath to me; vierzig Ritter ihrer Ehre zu berauben to rob fifty knights of their honor.

(a) The verbs belonging here are those of separating, depriving, accusing, convicting, admonishing, and a few others. Some of these verbs may take a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing, others often have a prepositional phrase instead of the genitive of the thing.

2. Many reflexives; as, *sie bemächtigte sich des Bildes* *she took possession of the picture*; *Sie werden sich ihrer erinnern* *you probably remember them*; *du schämst dich seiner traulichen Begrüßung* *you are ashamed of his familiar greeting*

(a) These verbs vary too much in meaning to admit of classification. Some of the commonest of them are:

<i>sich anmaßen</i> <i>claim</i>	<i>sich erbarmen</i> <i>pity</i>
<i>bedienen</i> <i>make use</i>	<i>(er)freuen</i> <i>rejoice</i>
<i>bemächtigen</i> <i>take possession</i>	<i>erinnern</i> <i>remember</i>
<i>besinnen</i> <i>bethink one's self</i>	<i>rühmen</i> <i>boast</i>
<i>enthalten</i> <i>refrain</i>	<i>schämen</i> <i>be ashamed</i>
<i>entzinnen</i> <i>recollect</i>	<i>weigern</i> <i>refuse</i>

Some of these verbs, as well as others not mentioned here, may have some other construction, mainly a prepositional phrase

3. A few impersonals; as, *und doch erbarmt mich deiner* *and yet I pity you*; *es lohnt sich der Mühe nicht* *it is not worth the bother*.

(a) These verbs are: *bauen* *pity*, *ecken* *disgust*, *erbarmen* *pity*, *(ge)lüsten* *desire*, *(ge)reuen* *repent*, *jammern* *pity*, *verbrießen* *vex*, *(ver)lohnen* *be worth*. But a prepositional phrase now commonly takes the place of the genitive, or the verb becomes personal.

Adverbial Genitive

446. The genitive is used adverbially in expressions of time, place, manner, and the like; as, *erhobenen Arms* *with uplifted arm*; *des andern Tags* *on the next day*; *nun geh deiner Wege* *now go your way*.

1. Except in a number of set phrases the adverbial genitive is now common only in expressions of time. For the difference between the genitive and the accusative of time see § 470. Quite a number of words now classed as adverbs are adverbial genitives in origin; see § 683, 2.

Other uses of the Genitive

447. The genitive is used with a number of prepositions, for which see § 595. It is also occasionally employed in exclamations; see § 610. For the genitive in apposition see the subject of apposition, § 473.

Partitive Genitive

448. A partitive genitive dependent on a noun, an indefinite pronoun, a numeral, or an adjectivé (nearly always a comparative or a superlative) indicates a whole of which the governing word is a part; as, *der größte Teil der Fürsten* *the majority of the princes*; *in jedem ihrer Blicke* *in every one of her glances*; *der Kleinsten einer* *one of the smallest*; *drei jener Schnechte* *three of those menials*; *du willst der Mädeln allerschönste sein* *you claim to be the most beautiful of girls*. For the partitive genitive with verbs see § 444.

1. The partitive genitive dependent on a noun or on the comparative or superlative of an adjective is still quite common, though often replaced by *von* with the dative. The indefinites and numerals are now ordinarily treated as adjectives in agreement with the noun; thus, *viele Freunde*, *fünf Bücher*, not *viele der Freunde*, *fünf der Bücher*. But the partitive genitive of a personal pronoun preceding an indefinite pronoun or numeral still occurs frequently; as, *unser drei* *three of us*. The genitive of a noun made emphatic by a modifier, such as a demonstrative or a possessive, is also rather common with an indefinite pronoun; as, *viele dieser Bücher*. *Von* with the dative of the pronoun or the noun is also common; as, *drei von uns*, *viele von diesen Büchern*.

2. The adjective following *wer*, *was*, *jemand*, *niemand*, *etwas*, and *nichts* has already been discussed in §§ 313, 314. For *alles* with *wer* and with *was*, see § 392, 1 and § 393, 1. See § 393, 1 for *was Wunders*, etc., also. The partitive genitive of some infinitives and of the nouns *Ding* and *Zeug* is still found in a few stereotyped expressions; as, *ein Laufens* *a commotion*; *viel Federlesen* *much ceremony*; *sprich nicht so Zeugs* *don't talk such stuff*. These expressions had their origin in the presence of such words as *ein*, *kein*, *viel*, and *nicht* (which was originally a substantive), though they sometimes occur without such words. For the partitive genitive as, in effect, the subject of a sentence see § 612, 1.

449. Constructions with Nouns of Quantity and Kind. Here are included nouns of weight, measure, amount, time, etc. (for their declension after numerals see § 276) and the words *Art*, *Sorte*, and *Gattung*, all three of which denote kind. Whether the dependent noun shall be in the genitive is determined generally by the presence or absence of a modifier.

1. The dependent noun is unmodified. The partitive genitive is then poetical; as, *den besten Becher Weins* *the best goblet of wine*; *Tonnen Goldes* *barrels of gold*. In ordinary prose the dependent noun is generally an actual appositive, or else retains the form of the nominative singular or plural without regard to case; as, *ein Beutel Gold* *a purse of gold*; *eine Art Tunnel* *a kind of tunnel*; *einige Stunden Schlaf* *some hours of sleep*; *eine Tasse Tee* *a cup of tea*; *einen Pack Briefe* *a bundle of letters*; *mit einer stattlichen Zahl Dienstjahre* *with a stately number of years of service*; *von einer großen Anzahl Offizieren* *by a large number of officers*.

2. The dependent noun is preceded by an adjective which is not accompanied by the definite article or a pronominal adjective. The partitive genitive, the appositive, and the unchanged form of the nominative singular or plural are in common use; as, *ein Meer blendenden Lichtes* *a sea of blinding light*; *eine Tasse schwarzen Kaffees* *a cup of black coffee*; *nach einer halben Stunde angestrengten Zuhörens* *after half an hour of close listening*; *mit einem Stück brennendem Schwefel* *with a bit of burning sulphur*; *für einen Topf saure Gurken* *for a jar of pickled cucumbers*; *eine Art geräucherter Hering* *a kind of smoked herring*.

3. The dependent noun is preceded by the definite article or a pronominal adjective. Here the partitive genitive is used; as, *ein Haufe solcher Büschel* *a heap of such tufts*; *ein Pfund des besten Tees* *a pound of the best tea*.

4. *Von* with the dative is often substituted for any of

the constructions mentioned above; *as, eine Art von Wall a kind of embankment; jede Art von irdischem Elend every kind of earthly misery; von dem Weine hatte er nur ein Glas getrunken he had drunk only a glass of the wine.*

450. Partitive Genitive with Adverbs. What is commonly construed as a partitive genitive occurs with a few adverbs of place and time; *as, woher des Landes from what part of the country? morgen des Tags to-morrow.*

DATIVE

451. The dative, as the indirect or remoter object, corresponds often to English phrases with *to* or *for*, but it has other uses. It occurs abundantly everywhere but is found more frequently in poetry than in prose, where its place may be taken by some other construction, generally by a prepositional phrase.

Dative with Verbs

452. As Sole Object. The dative appears as the sole object of many verbs. Some of the English equivalents of these verbs are regarded as transitive (§ 477), but most of them are followed by a preposition and its object. The intransitive verbs thus governing the dative may be roughly and incompletely classified as follows:

i. Those that denote liking, pleasing, benefiting, thanking, resembling, approaching, serving, listening to, believing, trusting, obeying, answering, advising, and the like, together with their opposites (disliking, displeasing, injuring, etc.); *as, ich flüche dir nicht I do not curse you; folge mir follow me; sie zürnte der Schwäche ihres Väters she was angry at the weakness of her father; er traut den Augen nicht he does not believe his eyes.*

(a) Some of the verbs belonging here present certain peculiarities which must be left to the dictionary. For example, *antworten* takes the dative of the person, using *auf* and the accusative for that to which

the answer is made, and the accusative for the answer itself; as, einer Person, auf eine Frage, kein Wort antworten *to answer a person, a question, not a word.*

2. Verbs with the prefixes *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *bei*, *ein*, *ent*, *entgegen*, *miß*, *mit*, *nach*, *ob*, *unter*, *ver*, *vor*, *wider*, *zu*, and a few compounds of these, such as *voraus* and *vorbei*. The list might be slightly extended. The dative is commonly due to the force of the prefix; as, *also entwich der bescheidene Sohn der heftigen Rede thus the modest son escaped from the angry speech*; *sollt' ich der Freud' absterben was I to die to joy?* *wem habt ihr zuletzt zugetrunken to whose health did you drink last?*

3. Other verbs compounded with certain nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases, the whole combination amounting to a verb and a separable prefix (§ 499); as, *als ich dir nicht Rede stand when I did not answer you*; *des Lebens unmischte Freude ward seinem Irdischen zu teil life's unmixed joy never fell to the lot of any mortal*; *dies tut mir leid this grieves me*; *mir ist schlecht zu Mute I feel bad.*

(a) The dative here could also often be explained as a dative of reference or concern or, when a noun is compounded with the verb, as a secondary object (§ 453). The reason for treating such phrases here is the actual weakening of the noun, adjective, etc. to a mere separable prefix.

4. Some impersonal verbs and other verbs used impersonally; as, *ihr graute schon jetzt she was already afraid*; *dir schwindelt you are dizzy*; *mir träumte von himmelblauen Blumen I dreamed of sky-blue flowers*. This is also frequently regarded as a dative of reference or concern.

(a) Here are included impersonal phrases made up of an adjective or an adverb and *sein*, *werden*, *gehen*, *geschehen*, etc.; as, *mir ist warm I am warm*; *dir ging's nah it affected you greatly*; *wenn dem so ist if that is so*; *wie ist mir? Wie geschieht mir what is the matter with me? What is happening to me?*

453. As Secondary Object. Many verbs take a secondary object in the dative in addition to their direct object. They are: 1. Transitives denoting giving, taking, sending, bringing, commanding, permitting, refusing, saying, telling, and the like. 2. Transitives with prefixes such as those mentioned in § 452, 2 and 3, the dative being commonly due to the prefix. 3. Some reflexives. The direct object is generally a noun, pronoun, or substantive object in the accusative, but may be an infinitive or a clause; as, man brachte mir einen Dreifuß *they brought me a tripod*; ich kann es Ihnen nicht leihen *I cannot lend it to you*; er hat ihr aber viel genommen *but he has taken much from her*; denn alles hat der Landvogt ihm geraubt *for the governor has robbed him of everything*; dir alles zu entziehen *to deprive you of everything*; wer hat dir etwas zuleide getan *who has harmed you?* er naht sich seinem Ende *he is nearing his end*; er erklärte dem Grafen, er würde nicht von der Stelle gehen *he explained to the count that he would not go from the spot*.

(a) After verbs of giving, saying, and the like, the dative is a real indirect object. After those of taking, robbing, and the like, the relation is somewhat different, and such datives are often regarded as datives of reference or concern.

(b) With a few verbs the indirect object is a reflexive pronoun; as, das habe ich mir eingebildet *I imagined that*. These differ from the reflexive verbs, such as sich nahen in the seventh sentence above, which have the reflexive pronoun in the accusative. See § 249.

454. As Dative of Reference or Concern. The dative is freely used in looser and remoter connection with the verb than the secondary object to show the person or thing referred to or concerned in the statement; as, du bemühst dich mir *you are exerting yourself for my sake*; ich lebe meinem Beruf *I live for my profession*; die Sonne leuchtet mir *the sun shines for me*; wir heißen ihm nur Kinder *we are only children in his opinion*.

1. The dative of reference or concern frequently modifies the whole sentence rather than merely the verb. It is often inserted where we feel no need for it and do best to omit it in translating into English. As already seen in § 452, 3 a and 4, no hard and fast line can be drawn between the dative of reference or concern and the other datives with verbs.

455. Two varieties of the dative of reference or concern need to be specially mentioned:

1. A dative dependent on a verb often takes the place of a possessive adjective or a genitive of possession; as, *du brichst mir das Herz* *you break my heart*; *Tränen stürzten ihr aus den Augen* *tears gushed from her eyes*. It occasionally occurs with the verb *sein*; as, *seht, wie allen die Schuhe so staubig sind* *see how dusty the shoes of all of them are*. This is often called the *dative of the possessor*.

(a) The noun designating the object possessed is regularly preceded by the definite article. For the old-fashioned use of a possessive adjective, instead of the definite article, before the noun see § 369, 1.

2. The dative of a personal pronoun often shows a very loose or remote connection of the person indicated by the pronoun with the statement. This dative is not found in modern English, but its meaning may generally be expressed by *please*, *see*, *I tell you*, *don't you know*, etc.; as, *eile mir ein wenig hurry a little, please*; *die Türken haben dir alle Säbel mit Diamanten besetzt* *the Turks all have sabers set with diamonds, you know*; *ihr könnt mir herunterfallen you might fall off, I fear*. This is also known as the *ethical dative*.

456. Substitutes for Dative with Verbs. The place of the simple dative is often taken by a prepositional phrase, especially in familiar speech. *Bei* is the preposition most often so used, but *für* and *zu* occur frequently, and others are not uncommon. The dative is, however, holding its own better than the genitive.

Dative with Adjectives

457. Many adjectives, including participles used as adjectives, govern the dative; as, *nur dem Kaiser untertan* *subject only to the emperor*; *ich bin ihm selber schuldig* *I am myself indebted to him*; *das Haus ist ihm groß genug* *the house is large enough for him*; *der Rock ist mir zu eng* *the coat is too tight for me*. Some of these adjectives can stand only in the predicate; others take the dative more freely if they are in the predicate or serve as a sort of separable prefix to a verb (§ 499, 2).

1. Almost any adjective may govern the dative if it is modified by *zu*, *allzu*, or *genug*. Adjectives regularly governing the dative are those with similar meanings to the verbs with the dative (§ 452, 1), including such as are derived from these verbs or related to them, also many derivatives in *bar* and *lich*, and some others. Negatives of such adjectives, formed by the prefix *un*, may also govern the dative. Some of the commonest of the words belonging here are:

ähnlich	<i>similar</i>	gehorsam	<i>obedient</i>	neidisch	<i>envious</i>
angenehm	<i>pleasant</i>	gelegen	<i>opportune</i>	nützlich	<i>useful</i>
bekannt	<i>known</i>	gemein(sam)	<i>common</i>	schädlich	<i>harmful</i>
bequem	<i>comfortable</i>	gleich	<i>like</i>	schuldig	<i>indebted</i>
dankbär	<i>grateful</i>	gut	<i>well-disposed</i>	schwer	<i>difficult</i>
eigen(tümlich)	<i>peculiar</i>	heilsam	<i>wholesome</i>	teuer	<i>dear</i>
feind(lich)	<i>hostile</i>	hold	<i>gracious</i>	treu	<i>true</i>
fern	<i>far</i>	leicht	<i>easy</i>	verwandt	<i>related</i>
fremd	<i>strange</i>	lieb	<i>dear</i>	wert	<i>dear</i>
freundlich	<i>friendly</i>	nahe	<i>near</i>	willkommen	<i>welcome</i>

With several of these adjectives, and with a number of others not in this list, a prepositional phrase is often substituted for the simple dative. Such substitutions are more common with nouns than with pronouns and in prose than in poetry.

2. See § 452, 4 a for the dative in *mir ist last*, *mir ist wohl*, etc.

Other Uses of the Dative

458. **With Nouns.** The dative may also be found in connection with a noun; as, *Gehorsam dem Gesetze obedience*

to the law; ein Muster Bürgern und Bauern a model for citizens and peasants; er sah nicht auf die wogenden Felder ihm zur Seite he did not look at the waving fields at his side. In most of such cases the governing noun is in the predicate with *sein* or *werden*, so that the dative is therefore similar to that with other verbs; in some cases a verb is probably to be understood; in some others, as in the first illustration above, the governing noun has a meaning akin to that of verbs or adjectives with the dative.

459. In Wishes and Exclamations. The dative may appear with a noun in expressions of wishing, with or without *sei* (present subjunctive); as, *Dank (sei) diesen freundlich grünen Bäumen thanks (be) to these friendly green trees!* In a similar way the dative appears with *heil*, *wohl*, etc.; as, *heil dem König hail to the king! wohl dir well for thee!* For the dative in exclamations see also § 610.

460. For prepositions governing the dative see § 596, and for those governing both the dative and the accusative, § 598. The dative may also be an appositive. See the general subject of apposition, § 473.

ACCUSATIVE

Accusative with Verbs

461. Transitives. The direct object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative; as, *ich erhielt einen Brief I received a letter; Sie erschrecken mich you frighten me.*

1. Fluctuation between the accusative and the genitive or, occasionally, between the accusative and the dative as the sole object still occurs with some verbs. It is generally due to the existence side by side of a newer and of an older and slowly disappearing construction. With some verbs, however, it is caused by a difference in meaning which makes itself felt in the change of case. The dictionary must be consulted for details.

462. Impersonals. An accusative object occurs after some impersonal verbs and after some other verbs used

impersonally; as, mich hungert *I am hungry*; es litt mich nirgends *I could remain nowhere*. See impersonal verbs, § 507, 6.

463. Intransitives. Verbs which are regularly intransitive may take an accusative object, as in English:

1. By adding an accusative which repeats the idea of the verb (*cognate accusative*); as, die Jahre gingen ihren einförmigen Gang *the years went their unchanging way*; er lebte ein so ruhiges Leben *he lived such a peaceful life*.

2. By adding an accusative of that which is caused or made to appear by the action of the verb; as, ihr Auge blüchte nicht Liebe *her eyes did not look love*; doch bald flagte er, daß er sich Blasen unter die Füße gegangen *but soon he complained that he had blistered his feet by walking*.

3. By adding an accusative and an adjective, a prepositional phrase, or some other equivalent of an adjective. Here the adjective or its equivalent shows the condition into which that which is designated by the accusative is brought by the action of the verb; as, schlaf dich gesund *sleep and get well*; die unglückselige Kreatur hustet sich zu Tode *the unfortunate creature is coughing himself to death*. See also § 324, 2 a.

464. Idioms contrary to English. 1. A few verbs, such as schütteln, niesen, and wedeln, commonly put the noun denoting the part of the body concerned in the action of the verb in the dative after mit; as, ich schüttelte mit dem Kopfe *I shook my head*. The accusative (ich schüttelte den Kopf) is possible but not so frequent.

2. With some verbs, such as beißen, klappen, schießen, schlagen, treffen, and treten, may be found either an accusative or dative of the person and a prepositional phrase showing the part of the body concerned in the action of the verb; as, da biß der Hund ihn in das Bein *then the dog bit him in the leg*; sie hat mir zweimal mit dem Schwanz ins Auge geschlagen *she hit me in the eye two times with her tail*. Notice also ihn or ihm mit Steinen an den Kopf werfen *to hit him on the head with stones*; also ihn or nach ihm mit Steinen werfen *to throw stones at him*. Steine nach ihm werfen is possible but unusual.

465. Two Accusatives. 1. Lehren takes an accusative (much less frequently a dative) of the person and an accusative (the secondary object) of the thing; as, *wer hat dich das dumme Wort gelehrt who taught you that stupid word?*

(a) Bitten, fragen, and a few other verbs may take two accusatives, especially if the accusative of the thing is a neuter pronoun; as, *ich bitte dich nur dies I ask only this of you.* But um etwas bitten, nach etwas fragen are commoner.

(b) Lügen strafen give the lie to and wunder nehmen take an accusative of the person; as, *es nimmt mich wunder I am astonished at it.* Lügen is probably an old genitive that now looks like an accusative. Es, das, etc., with wunder nehmen, have, like the accusative with adjectives, their origin in the old genitive es (§ 441, 2).

2. Heissen, nennen, schelten, and a few other verbs meaning to call or entitle, take an adjunct accusative (or objective predicate) in addition to the direct object; as, *sie nannten ihn einen dummen Jungen they called him a stupid boy;* er schalt sich einen Feigling *he called (literally scolded) himself a coward.* See also § 324, 2 a.

(a) But the nominative occurs fairly frequently instead of the second accusative.

(b) Glauben, wähnen, fühlen, and a few other verbs occasionally take two accusatives; as, *ein Märchen glaubt' ich's I thought it a fiction.* But they generally have an infinitive, a clause, or a prepositional phrase instead of the simple accusative.

3. A similar accusative occurs after als with a number of verbs, in addition to the direct object; as, *den die Geschichte als ihren Helden preist whom history praises as its hero;* betrachte dich nicht als meinen Diener *do not regard yourself as my servant.* Als is sometimes omitted according to the older usage. See also the subject of apposition, § 475.

(a) The verbs belonging here are mostly those of esteeming, regarding, representing, praising, greeting, etc. *Als* is sometimes followed by the nominative instead of the accusative. Some verbs of regarding and representing, such as *achten* and *halten*, commonly take *für* and the accusative instead of *als*; thus, *man hält mich für einen anderen* *I am taken for somebody else.*

466. Verbs of Making, Appointing, Electing, etc. Instead of a second accusative, German uses a phrase with *zu* and the dative with these verbs; as, *du machtest mich zum Menschen* *you made me a human being*; *die Portugiesen ernannten ihn zu ihrem Generalissimus* *the Portuguese appointed him their commander-in-chief*; *ihn zum Vorsitzenden wählen* *to elect him president*. The definite article is used in the phrase, not the indefinite as in English. If it is not replaced by a pro-nominal adjective, as in the second illustration above, it is regularly contracted in the singular with *zu* to *zum* or *zur*, but is dropped in the plural.

1. Instead of the phrase with *zu*, *als* and the accusative, the nominative may sometimes be used.

467. For the accusative as subject of an infinitive see § 577.

Accusative with Adjectives

468. The accusative, commonly of a pronoun, is sometimes used with a few adjectives which regularly govern the genitive, and with one or two others which formerly governed the genitive but now regularly take a prepositional phrase; as, *seid ihr mich schon müde* *are you already weary of me?* For the probable origin of the construction see § 441, 2.

Adverbial Accusative

469. The accusative is used adverbially, that is, in looser syntactical connection with the sentence than the direct object:

1. To denote direction of motion. It is then often accompanied by such words as *hin*, *her*, *herauf*, *hinunter*, etc.; as, *will ich's niederjagen den steilsten Abhang* *I will chase it down the steepest slope*; *er stürmte die Treppe hinab* *he rushed down the stairs*. Here may be included constructions indicating merely difference of position; as, *wo Karrn an Karrn die breite Straße dahin stand* *where cart after cart stood along the broad street*.

(a) It is not always possible to say positively whether an accusative with an intransitive verb of motion is adverbial or cognate (§ 463, 1).

2. To denote measure, as duration of time, distance, weight, cost, etc. It is then often accompanied by *lang*, *breit*, *hoch*, *alt*, *stark*, *von hier*, *von der Stadt*, or the like; as, *ich begleite Sie ein Stück* *I will escort you a little way*; *so hat er acht Jahre lang gesucht* *thus he searched for eight years*; *eine Stunde vom Haus* *an hour's walk from the house*; *vierhundert Meter hoch* *four hundred meters high*; *den ganzen Abend liegt mir's im Sinn* *it has been on my mind the whole evening*; *es kostet eine Mark* *it costs a mark*; *das Kind ist drei Jahre alt* *the child is three years old*.

3. To denote the time when an event occurred; as, *Gneisenau schrieb den 22.* *Gneisenau wrote on the 22nd*. See § 470.

4. The adverbial accusative has grown, in part, at the expense of the adverbial genitive. Consequently the genitive may occur in literature where the accusative would now be found in ordinary speech.

Genitive and Accusative in Time When

470. The time of the occurrence of an event (not how long it lasted, for which see § 469, 2) is sometimes expressed by the genitive, sometimes by the accusative. The following is the common usage:

1. Definite time is expressed by the accusative; as, *diesen*

Abend this evening; nächste Woche next week; den 15. September the 15th of September.

(a) An accusative, adverb, or prepositional phrase of definite time is often accompanied by a genitive; as, *Montag Nachmittag* or *Nachmittags Monday afternoon*; *als sie vor acht Tagen Abends um neun Uhr vom Dorfe hergekommen ist when she came here from the village a week ago at nine o'clock in the evening*. The genitive, as a survival, is also occasionally found where we should expect the accusative.

2. Indefinite time is expressed by the genitive; as, *eines Abends one evening; eines Tages one day*.

3. The time of customary or repeated action is expressed by the genitive; as, *die Post kommt Freitags an the mail comes Fridays; Tages Arbeit, Abends Gäste work by day, guests in the evening*.

(a) But the accusative is used regularly with *jeder*, commonly with *all*, and sometimes elsewhere; as, *jeden Tag every day; alle Jahre every year*.

4. A prepositional phrase often takes the place of either the genitive or the accusative of time; as, *am Freitag on Friday; spät am Abend late in the evening; in der Nacht in the night*.

Accusative Absolute

471. The accusative absolute stands in still looser syntactical connection with the rest of the sentence than the adverbial accusative. It is accompanied by a modifier, such as an uninflected adjective or participle or a prepositional phrase. Like the English nominative absolute, to which it is equivalent in meaning, it generally, though not always, refers to the subject of the sentence; as, *er saß wieder auf seinem Sessel, den Kopf in die Hand gestützt he was again sitting on his seat, his head resting on his hand; ein junger Bursch, den Tornister auf dem Rücken, den Stab in der Hand a young*

fellow, his knapsack on his back, his stick in his hand; der Trupp, den Gefangenen in der Mitte, bewegte sich schweigend dem Rathaus zu the troop, with the prisoner in its midst, went silently towards the town hall. The participle modifying the accusative differs from the participle itself used absolutely. For the latter see §§ 583, 5 and 586, 7.

1. The accusative absolute, though almost unknown in the older language, is a growing construction, gaining particularly over prepositional phrases equivalent to it. The latter are, however, still not infrequent; as, *ich werde ihn empfangen mit dem Schwert in der Hand I shall receive him with my sword in my hand.*

2. The nominative absolute is rare. See § 434.

Other Uses of the Accusative

472. Certain prepositions govern both the dative and the accusative; see § 598. Others govern the accusative only; see § 597. For the occasional use of the accusative in exclamations see § 610. The accusative may be used, like the other cases, in apposition. See the general subject of apposition, § 473.

APPOSITION

473. An appositive agrees in case with the word that it explains; as, *ich erhebe dich, dein König, aus dem Staube deiner dunkeln Geburt I, thy king, raise thee out of the dust of thy obscure birth; ich sehe die Deichselsterne des Wagens, des liebsten unter allen Gestirnen I see the pole stars of the Wain* (that is, *pointers of the Dipper), the fairest of all the constellations; warum so zaghaft zittern vor dem Tod, dem unentfliehbaren Geschick why tremble so timidly before death, our unavoidable fate? wir glauben all an einen Gott, Schöpfer Himmels und der Erden we all believe in one God, creator of heaven and earth.*

1. An appositive does not always explain a noun or a word used for a noun. It may, for example, explain a clause, a possessive adjective, or an adverb. A clause is construed as a nominative. The noun in apposition with a possessive adjective is put in the genitive; as, *in ihren, der Schwester, Augen in her, the sister's, eyes.* The case of a noun

referring to an adverb is determined by the construction in which the adverb stands. Violations of the rule for agreement in case also occur occasionally, the appositive then being usually put in the nominative without regard to the case of its antecedent. The mixture of cases in such expressions of time as *am Freitag, den 18. on Friday, the 18th*, is probably to be explained by the rules for *time when* (§ 470).

2. If the appositive is a quotation, it may stand in the nominative in violation of the rule for agreement; as, *Goethe erhielt den Beinamen „Götz von Berlichingen, der Rebliche“ Goethe received the nickname of “Götz von Berlichingen, the Honest.”* Or the quotation may be made to agree in case with its antecedent. See also the subject of book titles, § 301.

3. For appositive adjectives see § 323, and for titles with proper names, §§ 295–300.

474. Appositive instead of Genitive. An appositive is often found in German where we should expect a genitive; as, *die große Stadt Paris the great city of Paris*. See the explanatory genitive (§ 437, 5). For the more or less complete change of the partitive genitive to the appositional construction after nouns of quantity and after *nichts, etwas, etc.*, see §§ 449, 313, 314.

475. Apposition with als. An appositive may be connected with its governing word by *als as*. The rule for the agreement of the appositive also applies here; as, *ich will als Schiffjunge nach Amerika I want to go to America as a cabin boy; mir als seiner Frau geziemt it beseems me as his wife; sie blickten sämtlich auf ihn als den sicheren Wall gegen jede Gefahr they all regarded him as their sure defense against every danger; morgen, als am ersten Ostertage to-morrow, that being the first Easter holiday.* See also §§ 432, 2 and 465, 3.

1. The appositive after *als* is more disposed than the ordinary appositive to violate the rule for agreement and to stand in the nominative without regard to the case of its antecedent. This is, in part, due to the fact that *als* is often really a subordinating conjunction introducing an incomplete clause. *Als* has, of course, other meanings in which it does not connect an appositive with its governing word.

476. Construction with wie. What looks like an appositive often accompanies *wie like*; as, *ich war wie ein Kind* *I was like a child*; *komisches Wort für einen Anfänger wie mich* *a comical expression for a beginner like me*. The difference between the two constructions is that *als* identifies, while *wie* indicates similarity. *Wie* is followed by the nominative perhaps more freely than *als*.

VERBS

TRANSITIVES AND INTRANSITIVES

477. A verb that takes an object in the accusative is transitive; all others are intransitive. Verbs that have a genitive or a dative as their sole object, such as *gedenken remember* and *folgen follow*, are therefore intransitive. From the point of view of modern English the equivalents of some of the German intransitives are transitive; for example, *remember* and *follow*. Some verbs fluctuate between the genitive (§ 443, 1) and the accusative as their sole object without any change in meaning, which shows that the distinction between transitives and intransitives is, in part, merely formal, though generally of considerable practical importance. See in this connection verbs regularly intransitive governing an accusative, § 463. A verb ordinarily intransitive may be made transitive by a prefix; thus, *verfolgen pursue* is transitive, though *folgen* is intransitive.

1. Perhaps every transitive verb in English can also be used intransitively. This is not the case in German, where only a comparatively few verbs can be employed in both offices. Ordinarily the intransitive force is given to a transitive verb by making it reflexive. See § 504, 3.

Haben and sein as auxiliaries

478. *Haben* is used as an auxiliary with all transitive verbs, including reflexives, and many intransitives. The intransitives with *haben* include nearly all verbs which take a geni-

tive or dative as their sole object, or express mere activity, or denote continuance in a place, a bodily condition, a frame of mind, and the like; as, tanzen, streiten, träumen, wohnen, stehen, sitzen, hungern, trauern. But observe that sein and bleiben are both conjugated with sein.

479. Intransitives taking sein as their auxiliary commonly denote some kind of change of place or condition; as, gehen, reisen, bersten, schwollen, gesunden, sterben, werden.

1. Some intransitive verbs of motion that are ordinarily conjugated with sein may, not must, take haben, if the goal of the motion is not expressed. On the other hand, verbs ordinarily conjugated with haben will often take sein if the idea of change of place or condition is brought out by a prefix, an adverb, or a prepositional phrase.

2. The above statements are designed to cover the normal literary usage of to-day, but it should be understood that considerable confusion still exists on account of survivals of older constructions and of variations in different parts of the country.

3. For the omission of the auxiliaries haben and sein in dependent clauses see § 616.

MODAL AUXILIARIES

480. Können, mögen, müssen, dürfen, wollen, and sollen are used as modal auxiliaries after the manner of the corresponding words in English, and take a dependent infinitive without zu; as, ich kann es nicht glauben *I cannot believe it*; er sollte seine Schulden bezahlen *he ought to pay his debts*; ich möchte dich gerne retten *I should like to save you*.

481. The English modal auxiliaries cannot form the compound tenses, and we are therefore often compelled to use the past infinitive of the dependent verb with them; as, *he, may have gone, he could have sung*. Modern German has developed a complete conjugation of these auxiliaries. It therefore uses the present infinitive of the dependent verb and forms the compound tenses of the auxiliary whenever necessary; thus, er hätte singen können, not er könnte gesungen haben. (For the infinitive of a modal auxiliary instead of

the past participle of compound tenses see § 218.) Owing to their full inflection, German can also use the auxiliaries where English must discard them and employ other verbs of similar meaning; as, *ihr werdet sie nicht daraus treiben wollen you will not want to drive them out of it; ich müßte dem Zufall gehorchen I should have to obey chance.*

1. What looks like the past infinitive, but is not, is rather common with *wollen* and *mögen*; as, *das will ich ihm auch geraten haben that is the advice I want him to have too; wir möchten unsere Unterhaltung nicht gestört haben we should like to have our conversation not disturbed.* In certain special senses, however, the modal auxiliaries are accompanied by the past infinitive; as, *in ihrer Jugend soll sie schön gewesen sein she is said to have been beautiful in her youth; aber was sind das für Dienste, die der Wirt unserm Major will erwiesen haben but what kind of services are they which the landlord claims to have done for our major?* But the occurrence of the past infinitive with a modal auxiliary having its usual sense is generally a survival from an older period and not in strict accord with the modern idiom.

482. Omission of Dependent Infinitive. The infinitive dependent on a modal auxiliary may be omitted:

1. If it is a verb of motion. Its place is then taken by an adverb or a prepositional phrase; as, *ich will in die Küche, in den Garten I wish to go to the kitchen, to the garden; Schiller mußte nach Jena Schiller had to go to Jena; darf ich mit may I go too?*

2. If the omitted infinitive can be readily understood from the context; as, *wolltet ihr das wirklich did you really wish to do that? ich will nicht I will not; ich werde sterben, und ich will es I am going to die, and I wish to; verdirb uns, wenn du darfst destroy us if you dare.* As two of these sentences illustrate, *es* or *das* (occasionally some other pronoun) may stand for an omitted infinitive.

(a) Notice the regular use of the past participle of the modal auxiliary in the absence of the dependent infinitive; as, *weil er stets gekonnt, was er gewollt because he has always been able to do what he*

would; sie hatten in das Dorf zurückgemusht *they had been compelled to go back to the village.*

483. As Independent Verbs. Können, mögen, and wollen are still used as independent verbs; thus, er kann Französisch *he can speak French*; dich aber mag ich gern *but I like you*; ich will nicht Schonung *I do not want mercy*. As independent verbs, they use the past participles gefonnt, gemocht, and gewollt.

484. Mood of Modal Auxiliaries. The almost complete disappearance of the subjunctive in modern English has led to the greatly increased use of the modal auxiliaries with dependent infinitive as a substitute for it. In German, on the contrary, the subjunctive is still a living force, and the auxiliaries therefore have a smaller part as substitutes for it. They are therefore less frequent than in English. In their proper sense they may be in either the indicative or subjunctive like other verbs and for the same reasons as other verbs.

485. Lassen with a dependent infinitive is like the modal auxiliaries in the regular use of the infinitive instead of the past participle in compound tenses. For it and for some other verbs which may have the same construction see §§ 562, 563.

PASSIVE VOICE

486. Passive of Transitives. The object of an active transitive verb becomes the subject in the transfer to the passive. The subject in the active, when retained in the passive, stands in the dative after von if it represents the agent, the person by whom the action is done; words for the means or instrument, if present, depend on a preposition, most often durch; thus, sie waren beide vom Gutsherrn eingeladen worden *they had both been invited by the squire*; die Stadt wurde vom Feinde zerstört *the city was destroyed by the enemy*; er wurde durch einen Pfeil verwundet *he was wounded by an arrow*;

die Fische werden mit Netzen gefangen *fish are caught with nets*; du kannst gerettet werden *you can be saved*; da aber wird Erde oder Sand gegen das Fenster geworfen *but then earth or sand is thrown against the window*; der Tisch ward gedeckt *the table was set*.

487. Verbs like nennen, heißen, etc. (§ 465, 2), that have two accusatives in the active, have two nominatives in the passive; as, Wilhelm von der Normandie wird der Eroberer genannt *William of Normandy is called the Conqueror*.

488. Verbs of making, appointing, electing, etc. (§ 466) change the accusative of the person of the active into the nominative in the passive, but retain the phrase with zu; as, er wurde zum König erwählt *he was chosen king*.

489. Lehren (§ 465, 1) may take in the passive a nominative of the person and an accusative of the thing taught (ich werde das gelehrt), or a nominative of the thing and an accusative of the person (das wird mich gelehrt), or, perhaps more commonly, a nominative of the thing and a dative of the person (das wird mir gelehrt). Fragen and one or two other verbs (§ 465, 1 a) may take an accusative of the thing in the passive or may substitute a prepositional phrase for it.

490. Transitive verbs which take a genitive (§ 445) or a dative (§ 453) as their secondary object keep the genitive or dative in the passive; as, mir ward's befohlen *I was commanded to do it*; ich wurde seiner Freundschaft gewürdigt *I was honored with his friendship*.

1. The nominative of the person is therefore impossible in the German equivalents of such expressions as *I was told, promised, commanded, given*.

491. Passive of Intransitives. Some of the intransitive verbs which govern the genitive (§ 443) or dative (§ 452) can form an impersonal passive in which the genitive or dative is retained; as, wie ihm geholfen werden kann *how he can be helped*; meiner wurde gedacht *I was remembered*. Es may or may not appear as the subject (§ 508).

1. The nominative of the person is therefore impossible in the German equivalents of such expressions as *I am helped, remembered*.
2. *Folgen follow* and *schmeicheln flatter* do sometimes form a personal passive, as *ich bin gefolgt*, instead of the more usual impersonal, as *mit wird gefolgt*. The construction is rare with other intransitives of this class.
3. If a verb governs the genitive in poetry and the accusative in ordinary prose, it may form an impersonal or a personal passive to correspond to the double construction in the active.

492. Many intransitives, mainly those expressing the activity of a person, and some transitives which can omit their object may form an impersonal passive. *Es* may or may not appear as the subject (§ 508). This construction, which is wholly unlike any English idiom, emphasizes the action rather than the person acted upon; as, *es war gesungen und gebetet worden the singing and praying was over*; *da wird in die Wangen gekniffen then cheeks are pinched*; *hier wird getanzt dancing here*.

1. Loose compounds of noun and verb which are, in effect, separable intransitives occur occasionally as impersonal passives; thus, *es wurde Parten (acc.) gespielt card playing was going on*.

Quasi-Passive

493. As the English passive uses *be* as its auxiliary, the so-called quasi-passive in German is apt to be a great source of confusion to English-speaking persons. The following is the distinction now made between the two passives in German: The forms with *werden* show the subject *acted upon*, those with *sein* show the subject *in a certain state or condition*; thus, *das Schloß wird zerstört the castle is being destroyed*; *das Schloß ist zerstört the castle is in ruins*. Other sentences illustrating the quasi-passive are: *die Pistolen sind geladen the pistols are loaded*; *sie ist gefangen bei den Engländern she is a captive among the English*; *ich war geärgert I was vexed*; *die Kirche ist lange zerstört gewesen the church has long been in*

ruins. Except in the imperative, where the forms with *sein* are well-nigh universal (§ 238, 1), only those with *werden* should now be used for the real passive.

494. The struggle between *werden* and *sein* in the formation of the passive has been decided in favor of *werden*, except in the imperative. The forms in *sein* have been more and more restricted to the meaning explained in § 493. But *sein*, though growing less frequent, is still often found:

1. In the infinitives, especially after the modal auxiliaries; as, es muß heute noch getan sein *it must be done before this day is over*; in diesen Kleidern will ich begraben sein *I wish to be buried in these clothes*; es heißt was, von seinem Volk geliebt zu sein *it means something to be loved by one's people*.

2. In the present and past with the force of the perfect and pluperfect passive; as, er ist an irgend wen geschrieben *it has been written to somebody or other*; weil sie nicht bloß gedichtet und gedacht, sondern gefühlt und erlebt sind *because they have not only been composed and thought but also felt and experienced*; die Buchdruckerkunst war schon über hundert Jahre erfunden *the art of printing had been discovered for more than a hundred years*. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether mere condition or state or the actual passive is intended.

Frequency of Passive

495. The passive is often used in English to put first in the sentence, and therefore to emphasize, what would be the object in the active. German, with its freer order of words, can make the object emphatic without this device, and so it generally employs the passive only where it really wishes to show that the subject is acted upon. The passive is therefore much less frequent in German than in English. Its frequency is further lessened by the use of certain constructions which act as substitutes for it.

Substitutes for the Passive

496. The following are common substitutes for the passive:

1. *Man* with the active; as, wenn man ihn der Freiheit ganz

beraubt *if he is entirely deprived of his freedom*; man hält mich hier gefangen *I am held a captive here*. The agent is omitted in the English and is represented by man in the German.

2. A reflexive; as, doch leichter träget sich hier jede Bürde *but every burden is borne more easily here*; der Schlüssel hat sich gefunden *the key has been found*. The agent is regularly omitted in this construction.

3. An active infinitive. For details see § 574.

4. Other substitutes, such as an impersonal verb (*es bedarf keiner Hilfe no help is needed*) or an intransitive (*ertrunken to be drowned*) are also occasionally found.

497. For the present participle preceded by zu and equivalent to a future passive participle (the so-called gerundive) see § 583, 4. For the past participle in some idiomatic constructions akin to the passive see § 586, 3 a.

VERBS WITH INSEPARABLE PREFIXES

498. A few comments about the inseparable prefixes are needed here in addition to what has been said in §§ 240–242. These prefixes (except wider, for which see § 501, 1) are never used as independent words. For their meaning see § 668. Emp, which is a variant of ent, is now found only in empfangen *receive*, empfehlen *commend*, and empfinden *feel*. Miß is nearly always unaccented and inseparable. It is occasionally accented, however, and is then preceded by ge in the past participle or, with some verbs, is separable in the infinitive and past participle, but not elsewhere; as, gemißbilligt *disapproved*, mißzuhandeln *maltreat*, mißgehandelt. Occasionally the same verb has all three forms of the past participle; as, mißbraucht *misused*, gemißbraucht, mißgebraucht.

VERBS WITH SEPARABLE PREFIXES

499. Further comments about the separable prefixes are needed here in addition to what has been said in §§ 243–246.

These prefixes are all in use as independent words. In their ordinary relations they are:

1. Adverbs and prepositions, such as *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *bei*, *ein*, *fort*, *her*, *hin*, *los*, *mit*, *nach*, *vor*, *weg*, and a number of others; thus, *beibringen* *produce*, *fortgehen* *go away*. These, alone or in combination (*heraus*, *dahin*, *voran*, etc.), are the real separable prefixes. The classes following have a looser connection with the verb.

2. Adjectives; as, *hochachten* *esteem*, *freisprechen* *acquit*.

(a) Close compounds of adjective and verb, such as *lieblosen* *caress*, and verbs from compounds already existing, such as *frühstücken* from *Frühstück* *breakfast*, are conjugated like simple verbs; thus, *frühstückten*, *frühstückte*, *gefrühstückt*.

3. Nouns; as, *danksagen* *thank*, *teilnehmen* *participate*. Usage is still unsettled about the manner of writing some of these compounds; thus, *danksagen* and *Dank sagen* both occur. If the noun is preceded by a modifier, it must have the capital; thus, *teilnehmen*, but *keinen Teil nehmen*.

(a) Close compounds of noun and verb, such as *lustwandeln* *promenade*, and verbs from already existing compounds, such as *wetteifern* *emulate* from *Wetteifer*, are conjugated like simple verbs; thus, *wetteifern*, *wetteiferte*, *gewetteifert*. In the past participle some of these verbs are occasionally separable; as, *wettgeeifert*.

4. Prepositional phrases; as, *auseinandergehen* *separate*, in *acht nehmen* *heed*, *zu teil werden* *fall to one's share*. Though most of such phrases are not yet written as one word with the verb, they are, in effect, separable prefixes; as, in *acht nehmen*, *nahm* in *acht*, in *acht* *genommen*. Usage concerning the initial capital or small letter is still uncertain with some of the nouns in these phrases. See 3 above.

PREFIXES BOTH SEPARABLE AND INSEPARABLE

500. *Durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *unter*, and *um* are both separable and inseparable. In separable compounds they receive the

chief accent, which is transferred to the verb in the inseparable compounds; as, *übersetzen* *ferry over*, *übersetzen* *translate*, *durch'tommen* *get through*, *um'stürzen* *overthrow*, *hinterge'rehen* *deceive*, *unterschätz'en* *undervalue*. The separable compound is more disposed to be literal, giving to prefix and verb their full separate meaning. The inseparable compounds are more disposed to take on an altered or figurative meaning. But this distinction is by no means invariably observed.

1. *Hinter* nearly always makes inseparable compounds. *Durch*, *über*, *unter*, and *um* are often used with the same verb, as illustrated by *übersetzen* above, both separably and inseparably. Commonly there is a distinct difference in the meaning of the two compounds from the same verb, but not always, and there is also sometimes a change of auxiliary (*haben* or *sein*) on account of the change in the meaning.

501. *Wieder* *again*, *back* forms a few inseparables; as, *wiederholen* *repeat*. Its separable compounds are numerous; as, *wiederbringen* *bring back*, *wiedernehmen* *retake*, *wiederfinden* *find again*. As a separable prefix it is often not written as one word with the verb.

1. *Wider* *against* is inseparable; as, *widersprechen* *contradict*, *widerlegen* *refute*. The official rules now discriminate between *wieder* and *wider*, originally the same word, but the distinction now made in the spelling was often not observed formerly, with resulting confusion.

502. *Voll* forms a few inseparable compounds; as, *vollenden* *complete*, *vollbringen* *accomplish*. Its separable compounds are numerous; as, *sich volltrinken* *get drunk*, *vollpropfen* *cram*. As a separable prefix it is often not written as one word with the verb.

COMPOUNDS OF SEPARABLE AND INSEPARABLE PREFIXES

503. If a separable prefix precedes an inseparable, it keeps its accent; as, *an'vetrauen* *intrust to*, *vor'behalten* *reserve*, *zu'bereiten* *prepare*. The verb then has the usual

conjugation for separables except that it cannot take *ge* in the past participle; as, *anvertrauen* (*anzubertrauen*), *vertraute an*, *anbertraut*. The separation of the prefix is avoided with a few verbs. Cases where an inseparable prefix precedes a separable are probably all due to the formation of a weak verb from a compound noun; as, *veranschlagen estimate*, from *Anschlag*; *beauftragen commission*, from *Auftrag*. Some compounds, such as *bevor*, *empor*, *entgegen*, exist as independent words, and are separable when used as verbal prefixes.

REFLEXIVE VERBS

504. Reflexive verbs are used freely in German, often in ways contrary to the English idiom, as shown by the following classification:

1. Verbs strictly reflexive, including those used only, or mainly, reflexively and such others as take on a different meaning when so used; as, *sich sehnen yearn*, *sich verlassen rely*, *sich wundern wonder*, *sich befinden be*. Verb and pronoun blend to form one idea. Though not uncommon in German, such verbs are infrequent in modern English.
2. Transitive verbs with reflexive objects, as in English; as, *sich schützen protect one's self*, *sich waschen wash one's self*, *sich verwunden wound one's self*.
3. Transitive verbs given the force of intransitives by the addition of a reflexive pronoun; as, *Thibaut entfernt sich Thibaut goes away*; *der Weg teilt sich hier the road divides here*; *setz' dich sit down*. There arises in this way a host of reflexives that should be translated into English by intransitives. See also § 477, 1.
4. Transitive verbs used reflexively, which are often substituted for the passive. See § 496, 2.
5. A few verbs which can be used both intransitively and reflexively without change of meaning; as, *nahen* or *sich nahen approach*.

6. Intransitives and transitives, which often take a reflexive pronoun together with an adjective or equivalent expression (§§ 324, 2 a and 463, 3); as, *er ging sich müde he walked till he was tired.*

7. Many intransitives and some transitives which may appear without an object. Such verbs often form an impersonal reflexive with *es* as the subject, unlike anything in English; as, *in lieblicher Gesellschaft geht sich's leicht it is easy to walk in pleasant company;* *von eurer Fahrt kehrt sich's nicht immer wieder from your journey one does not always return;* *es wohnt sich prächtig in diesem Hause this house is fine to live in.*

505. Reflexive verbs often take a remoter object in the genitive or, less frequently, in the dative. For further details see under the genitive, § 445, 2, and the dative, § 453. The plural of reflexive verbs is often used in a reciprocal sense. See § 307.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

506. Impersonal verbs are much more extensively used in German than in English. Some verbs (mostly those pertaining to the operations of nature, but including a few others, such as *dürfen seem* and *gelingen succeed*) are rarely employed in any other way, but almost all verbs, no matter what their ordinary construction, may be used impersonally.

507. **Classification.** Impersonal verbs may be classified as follows:

1. Verbs pertaining to the operations of nature; as, *es hagelt it hails;* *es regnet it rains;* *es friert it is freezing.* *Es* is felt as the real subject and cannot be omitted.

2. Both transitives and intransitives, with *es* as subject, which are used very freely and often in a way impossible in English. *Es* is usually indefinite or general here, but it may convey the added meaning of something mysterious, or even weird and dreadful, at work; as, *es flopft somebody is knocking;* *es trieb mich, die Stätte zu sehen something im-*

pelled me to see the site; in wilder Hast ging's über die Heide he rushed over the heath in wild haste; da polterte es auf dem Vorsaal then there was a racket in the entry; in der Ferne klang's wunderbar geheimnisvoll wonderful, mysterious tones sounded in the distance. Es cannot be omitted in this construction.

3. Many reflexives. For details see § 504, 7. Es cannot be omitted in this construction.

4. Many passives, with or without es. See § 492.

5. Sein and werden, with or without es, accompanied by an adjective, adverb, or prepositional phrase, the whole expressing a state of mind or body; as, mir ist kalt *I am cold*; es ist mir bange *I am afraid*; zuletzt wird ihnen so heiß *at last they get so warm*. See also § 452, 4 a.

6. Many other verbs, with or without es, which take an accusative or dative of the person and express a state of mind or body; as, mich schauert *I shudder*; ihr schauderte *she shuddered*; mich dünnkt *it seems to me*; nicht grauet dem Schützen auf schwindlichem Weg *the hunter feels no horror on his dizzy way*; nicht, weil es mich nach euren Wundern dürfstet *not because I thirst for your wonders*. Some of these verbs with the accusative may also take a remoter object in the genitive (§ 445, 3).

(a) Some of the verbs belonging here fluctuate between the accusative and dative of the person. Others fluctuate between the personal and the impersonal construction; as, mir träumt or ich träume *I dream*; mich friert or ich friere *I am cold*. Strictly speaking, the impersonal should indicate that the action comes from without and the personal that it comes from the subject, but this distinction is often disregarded by the best writers.

508. Omission of es. In classes 1, 2, and 3 above, es cannot be omitted, as it is felt to be the real subject, though its meaning is indefinite. In classes 4, 5, and 6 it is felt to be, with most of the verbs, merely a formal subject (§ 613) and is frequently omitted. Impersonal passives, class 4, retain it in the principal clause in the normal order; in the inverted order and in subordinate clauses it is regularly omitted.

Impersonals indicating a mental or bodily state, classes 5 and 6, retain es in the principal clause in the normal order but often, with some words always, drop it in the inverted order. With these two classes it is seldom omitted in the subordinate clause.

509. Es gibt. This is an actual impersonal with es as the real, though indefinite, subject. The verb stands only in the third person singular (es gibt, es gab, es hat gegeben, etc.), and the accompanying noun is in the accusative; as, im Dorfe gab's großen Jubel *there was great rejoicing in the village*; es ist erstaunlich, wie viele Länder es gibt *it is astonishing how many countries there are*.

1. In es ist (jimb), es is merely the formal subject (§ 613) and the verb agrees in number with the actual subject. While es gibt and es ist (jimb) are sometimes used with no apparent difference in meaning, they are ordinarily quite distinct. As becomes the impersonal, es gibt is more disposed to make general statements and to apply to what is more vague or indefinite in place and the like. As contrasted with it, es ist (jimb) is therefore more specific and definite.

Uses of the Forms of the Verb

AGREEMENT OF NUMBER

510. The verb agrees with its subject in number. If the subject is singular, the verb is therefore also singular; if the subject is plural, or if there are two or more subjects, the verb is plural; as, der Reiter stieg ab *the rider dismounted*; vierzig Jahre vergingen *forty years passed by*; ein Wolf und ein Lamm kamen an einen Fluß *a wolf and a lamb came to a stream*.

511. The exceptions, real and apparent, to the rule for agreement are, in general, the same in German as in English, but the following points need to be noted:

1. A collective noun in the singular governs a singular verb far more strictly than in English; as, die Polizei war dem Dieb auf der Spur *the police were on the track of the robber*; warum läuft das Volk so zusammen? *why are the people running together so?* diese muntere Schar, von wannen kommt sie *this gay throng, from whence do they come?* But if the noun is accom-

panied by a plural noun in apposition, in the genitive, or in the equivalent phrase with von, the verb may be in the plural; as, eine Reihe von kleinen, liebevollen Aufmerksamkeiten schlangen sich wie Ringe in einander *a succession of small, loving acts of attention were twined together like links*; eine Anzahl Soldaten hatten sich gesetzt *a number of soldiers had sat down*. But the singular is quite common even in such constructions.

(a) Older German had more of the freedom of English usage in this regard, and we therefore find in literature many exceptions to the strict rule for the singular verb.

2. With singular titles, such as König, Graf, Excellenz, Herr, Frau, and Fräulein, the verb is often plural, for politeness' sake, in speaking to, less frequently of, a person; as, der Herr Professor haben das Abendbrot vergessen *you have forgotten your supper, Professor*; nur das Fräulein sind zu Hause *only the young lady is at home*. For further details see § 353, 4.

3. If es is a mere formal subject (§ 613), the number of the verb is determined by the real subject; as, es kann sie einer nur besitzen *only one can have her*; es donnern die Höhen *the heights thunder*.

4. If es, das, die, etc. are the real subjects, but are accompanied by a predicate nominative, the verb agrees in number with the predicate noun; as, es war meine Tochter *it was my daughter*; und das waren Kinder *and they were children*.

5. Two or more subjects may govern a singular verb far more frequently than in English. The subjects may be felt as a sort of collection or unity, or the verb may simply agree with the nearest one; as, vor Zeiten war ein König und eine Königin *long ago there was a king and a queen*; der Alte folgte der Leiche und die Söhne *the father and the sons followed the corpse*; und Hass und Groll und Wut und Dual und Pein zerschmilzt in heißen Tränen *and hate and rancor and rage and torment and pain dissolve in hot tears*.

6. When singular subjects are connected by *oder*, *entweder* . . . *oder*, *noch*, *weder . . . noch*, *sowohl . . . als*, and the like, the verb is generally singular; as, *wo weder Mond noch Sonne dich bescheint where neither moon nor sun shall shine upon thee*. The plural is also possible with two or more singular subjects connected by such conjunctions; as, *weder mein Vater noch meine Mutter haben mich geschlagen neither my father nor my mother (ever) struck me*.

7. A plural noun used as the title of a book, etc., commonly has a plural verb; as, *Politik und Religion schlossen die „Horen“ aus the “Horen” excluded politics and religion*. If such a title is, however, an appositive to *Drama*, *Werke*, or the like, the verb is regularly in the singular.

AGREEMENT OF PERSON

512. One Person. The verb agrees in person with one subject, or with two or more subjects of the same person; as, *ich bezog nun sogleich meine neue Wohnung I at once moved into my new dwelling*; *warum habt ihr das getan why did you do that?* *arme Leute und reiche Leute leben auf verschiedene Art in dieser Welt poor people and rich people live in different ways in this world*.

i. For the person of the verb after a relative pronoun see § 406.

513. Different Persons. If there are two or more subjects of different person, the first person takes precedence over the second and third, the second person over the third. *Wir* or *ihr* may then be inserted to sum up the subjects. The verb is regularly in the plural; as, *und nicht ich und noch weniger du können etwas tun and I can do nothing and still less you*; *Ida und ich, wir würden glücklich mit ihm sein Ida and I would be happy with him*; *du und dein Bruder seid mir willkommen you and your brother are welcome*; *du und der Brandstetter habt sozialdemokratisch gewählt you and Brandstetter voted the social democratic ticket*.

1. If the verb precedes, it often agrees with the nearest subject; as, *in dieser Sache irrst du und ich in this matter you and I are mistaken.* When following, it occasionally agrees with the nearest subject or is in the third person plural; as, *ihr und eure Meinung hat keine Macht mehr über mich you and your opinion have no more power over me; was kann es mir helfen, daß du und mein Vater einst Freunde waren what good does it do me that you and my father were once friends?*

2. If the subjects are connected by oder, entweder . . . oder, noch, weder . . . noch, sowohl . . . als, and the like, the verb often agrees with the nearest one; as, *weder du noch ich bin es gewohnt neither you nor I am accustomed to it.*

TENSE

514. German regularly has only one form for a tense in contrast to the greater number in English. Thus, *ich gehe* does duty for *I go, I am going, I do go.* The shades of meaning indicated by the different English forms must therefore either be left unexpressed in German or be shown in some roundabout way, such as the use of an adverb or an adverbial phrase.

1. In certain kinds of literature and often in the speech of the uneducated a present and past are formed with tun as an auxiliary; as, *er tut gehen, er tat gehen*, or, more commonly, *er töt gehen* (§ 230, 1). The other persons of the present and past are formed in the same way. These forms look like the English *he does go, he did go*, etc., but they lack the emphasis of the latter and are therefore merely equivalents of the simple present and past.

Tenses of the Indicative

515. The following discussion of the tenses refers to the indicative. The tenses of the subjunctive have the same names as those of the indicative and correspond closely to them in form. Their use depends, however, less on considerations of time than of mood, and they are therefore discussed

in connection with the subjunctive. In the indicative the time of an action or state depends upon the point of view of the speaker. What is the present for him, for example, may be the past for us.

Present

516. The present is the tense of present time and of general statements; as, *wir sind beide noch jung we are both still young*; *der Zweifel ist's, der Gutes böse macht it is doubt that makes good evil*.

1. It is also used instead of a past tense in vivid narrative. This is the so-called historical present; as, *es war nach Mitternacht, als ich wieder auffahre, und er steht vor mir, angetan wie damals it was after midnight, when I start up again, and he stands before me, clothed as of old*.

2. It takes the place of the future more frequently than in English; as, *weil der Arzt morgen kommt, fürchtest du dich you are afraid because the physician is coming to-morrow*; *in fünf Minuten bin ich fertig I'll be ready in five minutes*.

3. It expresses a past action or state which continues in the present. Here English has the present perfect. In this use the present is generally accompanied by an adverb or a prepositional phrase of time; as, *wie lange haben wir schon Friede and how long have we had peace?* *seit fünf Jahren bin ich nun Krankenpflegerin for five years I have been a nurse*.

4. As in English, it may be equivalent to the imperative. See § 555, 3.

Past

517. The past corresponds, in the main, to the English past tense. It is therefore the usual tense in the narration of past events; as, *er trat an das kleine Fenster, das auf die Kirche sah he stepped to the little window that looked towards the church*; *bevor mein Bruder gestern zu Ihnen ging, war ich*

einigermaßen besorgt um ihn before my brother went to you
yesterday I was somewhat worried about him.

1. Like the English past tense, it may also express the continuance or repetition of a state or action in the past; as, mit dem Schlag sieben trat der Herr Amtsrat des Morgens zu einer Tür seines Wohnzimmers herein *every morning on the stroke of seven the judge stepped in at one door of his living room;* in der Eiche Schatten saß ich gern *I liked to sit in the shadow of the oak.*

2. It is used in expressing a past action or state continued up to the time of the narrative, where English has the past perfect; as, am nächsten Abend saß Margaret schon seit einer Stunde mit ihrem Rocken vor der Tür *on the next evening Margaret had been sitting for an hour in front of the door with her distaff;* „längst war ich zu Hause,” fügte er hinzu *“I had long been at home,” he added.* See § 516, 3.

3. It is often found where we should expect the present perfect; see § 520.

Present Perfect

518. The present perfect corresponds, in general, to the English present perfect; as, sie haben ihre Arbeit noch nicht vollendet *they have not yet finished their work;* die Sonne ist schon untergangen *the sun has already set.* For its use where we should expect the past see § 520.

1. It is also often employed, as in English, for the future perfect; as, sobald ich angekommen bin, werde ich dich besuchen *as soon as I have arrived, I shall visit you.*

519. The two chief differences between the English and German use of the present perfect should be carefully noted:

1. In both languages this tense often implies that the result of an action or state still continues in the present, but the English present perfect may also imply that the action or state itself still continues. Thus, *he has lived ten*

years in Berlin means that he still lives there. This would have to be expressed in German by the present (§ 516, 3). On the other hand, *da hab' ich jetzt vier Wochen gehaust* (*resided*) means that the speaker spent the four weeks just ended at the place, but no longer lives there.

2. The German tense may lay stress upon the completion of an action without reference to its connections or results and is therefore often used to represent a single past act. Here English requires the past tense; as, *Schiller hat die Geschichte des dreißigjährigen Krieges geschrieben* *Schiller wrote the history of the Thirty Years' War*; *Gott hat die Welt erschaffen* *God created the world*.

Exchange of Present Perfect and Past

520. There are, of course, many cases, as in English, where either tense may be used, but literary German, probably influenced in part by the brevity of the form, not infrequently has the past where the present perfect is the more natural construction; as, *was ich mitnahm aus der Stadt* *what I have brought from town*; *ich sah dich schon* *I have already seen you*; *wenn die Form zersprang* *what if the mold has burst!*

1. On the other hand, everyday speech and the literature which imitates it abound in present perfects where English would have the past, particularly in reference to very recent events; as, *ich bin auch ein ganz flotter Student gewesen* *meiner Zeit in Breslau* *in my time I was also a gay student in Breslau*; *gut, daß du nicht mitgegangen bist* *it is well that you did not go too*; *hat sie Sie nicht am Bahnhof empfangen* *didn't she meet you at the station?*

2. In narrating past events there is also a tendency to use the past if the speaker was an eyewitness, and the present perfect if he speaks from hearsay. Such a distinction obscures still more the difference between the two tenses.

Past Perfect

521. The past perfect corresponds quite closely to the English past perfect; as, *Marlene war in der entscheidenden Stunde unverzagt gewesen* *Marlene had been undaunted in the decisive hour*; *diese Erregung des Majors hatte er nicht erwartet* *he had not expected this agitation of the major*.

1. For the past where English would have the past perfect see § 517, 2.

Future

522. The future corresponds, in general, to the English future; as, *niemand wird froher sein als ich* *nobody will be happier than I*; *tausend Blumen werden erblühen*; *wir aber werden's nicht wissen* *a thousand flowers will blossom, but we shall not know it*.

1. The German future often expresses a mere probability or conjecture, a usage practically unknown in the English of this country; as, *ihr werdet wohl nicht alle Leut' dort kennen* *you probably do not know everybody there*; *es wird mein Gewissen sein* *it must be my conscience*.

2. See § 516, 2 for the present substituted for the future. As in English, the future may be equivalent to the imperative; see § 555, 3.

Future Perfect

523. The future perfect also corresponds, in general, to the same tense in English; as, *wenn ich alle Vorbereitungen zu seinem Empfange getroffen haben werde*, *wird er ankommen* *when I shall have made all the preparations for his reception, he will arrive*. As in English, the present perfect (§ 518, 1), less frequently the present or simple future, is often substituted for it.

1. Though infrequent in its proper sense, it is not uncommon in expressing a past probability or conjecture; as, *sie*

wird verläßt gewesen sein *she was probably crazy*; wo wird er die Nacht zugebracht haben *where can he have spent the night?*

MOOD

Indicative

524. The indicative in German, so far as it goes, corresponds to the indicative in English, though the use of the tenses, as explained above in §§ 516–523, is not always the same in the two languages.

Subjunctive

525. The subjunctive is the mood of doubtful or conditional statement. Although comparatively little used in modern English, it is still very extensively employed in German. In translating the German subjunctive into English, therefore, we must generally either take refuge in our indicative, often with the addition of adverbs or other words to express uncertainty or contingency, or extend the use of the modal auxiliaries beyond the German practice. We meet with still greater difficulties, in translating from English into German, in deciding whether to retain the indicative or modal auxiliary, as in English, or to use the subjunctive.

526. But not every doubtful or conditional statement calls for the subjunctive in German. Nor does the presence of an adverb, such as *wohl* or *vielleicht*, or of a verb, or of any other construction expressing uncertainty prevent the use of the indicative in the same clause or in a clause dependent on it. Moreover, there are no conjunctions which are necessarily followed by the subjunctive. That is, no construction, as such, now governs the subjunctive; the thought to be conveyed is the deciding factor. Possibly we may except from this statement German indirect discourse (§ 548), in which the mood has perhaps now become only a mechanical way of showing indirectness of statement.

527. **Tenses.** The ideas of time expressed by the tenses of the indicative are scarcely evident in the subjunctive.

The use of the subjunctive tenses depends, therefore, mainly on other considerations. In general, the tenses of the *present group* (that is, the present, present perfect, future, and future perfect) indicate that the statement is within the bounds of possibility or of hope, while those of the *past group* (that is, the past, past perfect, and, in most of their uses, the past future and past future perfect) show improbability, little or no hope of attainment, unreality, and the like.

1. We find not infrequently in literature a mixture of tenses which seems to follow no rule and to be due merely to the arbitrary choice of the writer. Besides, the distinction between the groups, as explained above, does not always hold good. For example, it is not valid for indirect discourse; a past subjunctive in the principal clause may be followed mechanically, though oftener formerly than now, by a past subjunctive in the subordinate clause; and a subjunctive in one clause may attract into the same mood the verb, otherwise indicative, of an accompanying clause (as in *ich möchte doch wissen, was Sein Herr an Ihm findet I should really like to know what your master finds in you!*). Still, the distinction between the two groups is of prime importance, as it runs through many uses of the subjunctive.

528. The indicative is constantly encroaching upon the domain of the subjunctive. Consequently, we find that Goethe, for example, uses the latter mood more than a modern author, and that the literature of to-day employs it more than ordinary conversation. The treatment of the subjunctive here is intended to be based upon the practice of careful contemporary writers of prose, with comments, of course, about older literature and modern familiar speech.

529. **Classification of Uses.** The subjunctive, as the modern representative of two primitive moods, the optative and the subjunctive, has a greater number and variety of uses than the indicative. These uses can, however, be roughly grouped into two general classes. The mood represents the state of affairs referred to: 1. As commanded, forbidden, desired, and the like. 2. As anticipated, conjectured, possible, improbable, unreal, reported, and the like. Since it is commonly easy to decide to which of these two general

classes a given subjunctive belongs, the most important uses of the mood are treated individually below without reference to them. It should be remembered, however, that the uses of the subjunctive, like most other grammatical distinctions, merge insensibly into one another, and the occurrence of the mood in a passage may, therefore, often be legitimately explained in more than one way.

Subjunctive as Imperative

530. The present tense of the subjunctive is used in principal clauses to supply the missing forms of the imperative. It occurs in the first person, rarely in the singular, and in the third person, singular and plural. The subject regularly follows the verb in the first person, but may either precede or follow it in the third. It is generally translated into English by *let* with a dependent infinitive; thus, *warten wir's ab let us await the outcome*; *er bleibe hier let him remain here*; *man rufe sie geschwind some one call them quickly*; *gehn einige und zünden Reisholz an let some go and set fire to brushwood*. The subjunctive here is a *volitive* subjunctive or subjunctive of the will, which represents the action as *willed*.

1. The imperative with *Sie*, as in *loben Sie* and *gehen Sie*, is therefore actually a plural present subjunctive, though given for convenience with the imperative forms in the paradigms.

Subjunctive in Assumptions and Concessive Clauses

531. The present subjunctive is used in suppositions and assumptions, the clause in which it stands being the starting point for further reasoning. It is also used in concessive clauses to concede something in spite of which the main proposition remains true. Illustrations are: *sei AB gleich und parallel mit CD let AB be equal and parallel to CD*;

der Brief enthalte, was es immer sei *no matter what the letter may contain*; man kann es ihm nicht recht machen, was man auch tue *one can not please him, whatever one may do*. The indicative of a modal auxiliary, generally mögen, with the infinitive may take the place of the subjunctive. The subjunctive here is near akin to that in the preceding paragraph.

i. The indicative is also found in concessive clauses when that which is conceded is regarded as a fact. Unreality or very remote supposition may cause the use of a subjunctive of the past group, and the construction is then nearly like that in ordinary conditions contrary to fact (§ 536). For the subjunctive with denn, equivalent to *unless, if not, etc.*, see § 539.

Subjunctive of Wishing

532. The subjunctive is used in principal clauses to express a wish. The present and the rare present perfect indicate hope of fulfilment; the past, improbability or impossibility of fulfilment now or later; while the past perfect expresses past impossibility. The subjunctive of mögen or wollen with the infinitive often occurs instead of the subjunctive of the simple verb. Inversion is usual for the first and second persons; the subject may precede or follow the verb in the third person; as, Gott segne euch *God bless you*; mögen die Winde das Gesprochene vernehen *may the winds dissipate what has been said*; daß wolle Gott nicht *God forbid*; er habe umsonst sich der Verdammnis übergeben *may he have vainly given himself over to damnation*; fände ich nur den Weg ins Haus *would that I could find the way home*; wäre es mir nur so zu entkommen *geglückt if I had only succeeded in escaping that way*; daß mich die Nacht verschläng' *would that the night might swallow me up*; O daß sie käme *O that she would come*. The past subjunctive is sometimes used modestly or politely for the present; see § 534.

1. Sentences like the last two above are, in origin, subordinate clauses of indirect statement (§ 543), a verb of wishing being understood, and the two preceding them are incomplete conditions contrary to fact with implied conclusional clause (§ 538). In the usage of to-day they seem to belong here, however. The subjunctive of wishing is also occasionally found in a clause evidently subordinate; as, *unser König, den Gott erhalte our king, whom may God keep.* This differs from the subjunctive in a subordinate clause dependent on an expression of wishing (§ 543, 2).

Subjunctive of Conjecture and Uncertainty

533. The uses of the subjunctive that are collected here under this very general heading are diverse. They all agree, however, in the one respect that they do not represent the action primarily as willed or wished and thus differ from the uses mentioned in the preceding paragraphs. They express rather what is anticipated, conjectured, possible, probable, uncertain, improbable, unreal, regarded as fit or proper, reported, and the like. They may occur in either principal or subordinate clauses. Illustrations are: *wir verstedten uns, bis es etwas heller würde we hid till it became somewhat lighter;* *harret ihr, bis daß der rechte Ring den Mund eröffne are you waiting till the right ring opens its mouth?* *wenn er erkrankte if he should become ill!* *das ist ein Freund, der sich für ihn totschlagen ließe that is a friend who would let himself be killed for him;* *bequemlich säßen viere darin four could sit comfortably in it;* *ich hätte eher dran denken sollen I ought to have thought of it sooner;* *das Klügste wäre das Klügste gewesen the boldest (course) would have been the wisest;* *manches hätt' ich getan I should have done many a thing;* *er tut, als wenn er emsig arbeite he acts as if he were working diligently;* *es geziemt sich, daß sich zu dem Großen das Gute geselle it is fitting that the good be associated with the great;* *da wurde ich eines Tages eilig in dieses Haus gerufen, denn der Herr Oberstlieutenant wäre im Sterben then I was hastily called to this house one day, for the*

lieutenant colonel was dying (as the messenger said). The term "potential" is also often employed as a collective name for these varied uses, though, strictly speaking, it applies to part of them only. In certain of these uses the indicative is making noticeable headway at the expense of the subjunctive.

Subjunctive of Pretended Doubt

534. We deal here with the subjunctive in intentional understatements. A tense of the past group (§ 527) is often used to make modest or cautious assertions, for politeness' sake, or to avoid undue positiveness or abruptness. This is known as the subjunctive of *softened assertion* or the *diplomatic* subjunctive. Or a tense of the same group may be employed in questions or exclamations to express pretended or incredulous surprise or indignant denial. These uses of the subjunctive actually belong among those mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, but are given a separate place for the sake of greater clearness. They occur abundantly in the familiar speech of to-day and in literature; as, es gibt keine Weddels, mit denen wir nicht verwandt wären *I suppose there are no Weddels to whom we are not related*; nun hätte ich noch eine Frage *I believe I have another question now*; da führen wir in Ruhe vor einer Flasche Rotwein here *we sit in peace, I hope, before a bottle of red wine*; das ist der Verbrecher. Sollt' man's wohl glauben *that is the criminal. Could you really believe it?* wie käm' ich selbst hierher *how did I myself come here?* den hätte ich aus dem Hause gestoßen *do you mean to say that I put him out of the house?*

Conditional Complex Sentences

535. Such sentences consist in their usual form of two clauses, the condition (the if-clause or protasis) and the conclusion (the then-clause or apodosis). They may be divided into three classes:

1. The condition does not imply a state of affairs contrary to fact. The indicative is then used in both clauses and there may be the same difference of tense as is permissible in English. Such conditional sentences are very abundant; as, *gewiß begleit' ich dich, wenn du nichts dagegen hast* *I'll certainly accompany you if you have nothing against it*; *wenn es ihm gefällt, dann wird er Ihnen helfen* *if it (= drama) pleases him, he will help you*; *wenn wir schön sind, sind wir am schönsten ungeputzt* *if we are beautiful, we are most beautiful unadorned*.

2. The sentence conveys the idea of a future possibility, such as is often expressed in English by the aid of *should* and *would* in the two clauses. The past subjunctive is then used in the condition, the past or past future subjunctive in the conclusion; as, *wir könnten viel tun, wenn wir zusammenstünden* *we could do much if we should stand (or stood) together*; *du würdest mein Alter höchstlich erfreuen, wenn du mir bald ins Haus ein Schwiegertöchterlein brächtest* *you would greatly rejoice my old age if you should soon bring (or soon brought) a daughter-in-law into my house*.

3. The condition is contrary to the fact. See the next paragraph for this class. The subjunctive in the last two classes falls under § 533.

536. Conditions Contrary to Fact. The supposition is contrary to fact, with no thought of future fulfilment. The past or past perfect subjunctive is used in both clauses, the past referring to present time and the past perfect to past time. Or the past future may take the place of the past, and the past future perfect of the past perfect, in the conclusion, but not in the condition. Thus, *wenn dir falt wäre, stündest du nicht am Fenster* *if you were cold, you would not stand at the window*; *deine Mutter würde es sagen, wenn der Vater ihr nicht wehrte* *your mother would say so if your father did not prevent her*; *wärest du hier gewesen, mein Bruder wäre*

nicht gestorben if thou hadst been here, my brother had not died; wenn ich ihn gesehen hätte, so würde ich es ihm gesagt haben if I had seen him, I should have told him. Occasionally the past is used in one clause and the past perfect in the other; as, wäre deine Mutter nicht gekommen, ich stände wohl noch da if your mother had not come, I should probably be still standing there.

1. Though contrary to the rule as stated above, there is a tendency to use the past future and past future perfect in the conditional clause of conditions contrary to fact, and the past future in the same clause of conditions expressing a future possibility (§ 535, 2).

537. Indicative for Subjunctive. In vigorous statement the indicative may replace the subjunctive in one clause or in both clauses of a conditional sentence, though the substitution occurs oftener in poetry than in prose; as, wir Eng(el)länder, waren wir allein, wir hätten Orleans nicht verloren we Englishmen, if we had been alone, we should not have lost Orleans; mit diesem zweiten Pfeil durchschoss ich euch, wenn ich mein liebes Kind getroffen hätte I should have shot you through with this second arrow if I had hit my dear child; noch gestern, wenn ihr kamt, da war ich frei as late as yesterday, if you had come, (then) I should have been free.

538. Incomplete Conditional Sentences. The thought of the conditional sentence is often expressed without observing its exact form. Thus, the condition may be implied or represented by an imperative, a wish, a relative clause, and the like, or be reduced by ellipsis to a word or phrase. The conclusive clause may undergo similar changes. Many sentences with als wenn, als ob, or als with inverted order (§ 608, 2) belong here. These statements apply, in the main, to all kinds of conditional sentences, though the illustrations following are purposely confined to incomplete conditional sentences contrary to fact; as, das täte keiner, der bei Sinnen ist no one would do that who is in his right mind; mir war, als könnte mir nichts helfen I felt as if nothing could help me;

wie, wenn ich hinginge *how (would it be) if I went?* aber du darfst das um ihretwillen nicht tun, was du tun willst, und wäre sie dir teurer als Vater und Mutter *but you have no right to do for her sake what you wish to do, even if she were dearer to you than your father and mother;* ohne deinen Beistand würde ich nicht mehr leben *without your assistance I should not be living now.*

539. The idiom with the subjunctive and *denn*, equivalent to *unless, if not, etc.*, may be mentioned here; as, man soll die alten Schuhe nicht fortwerfen, man habe denn neue *don't throw your old shoes away if you haven't new ones;* er entfernte sich niemals weit, er sagte es ihr denn *he never went far away unless he told her (or without telling her).* But this subjunctive may also be explained as concessive; see § 531, 1. The indicative with *denn* is unusual in this construction.

Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses

540. The subjunctive occurs with great frequency in subordinate clauses. Though the reasons for its occurrence there have actually been explained in the preceding paragraphs, its use in several important types of subordinate clauses is discussed below for the sake of fuller illustration:

1. For the subjunctive by *attraction*, which is rather uncommon in the ordinary prose of to-day except in certain stereotyped expressions, see § 527, 1.

Subjunctive Due to a Negative

541. A subjunctive, now generally of the past group (§ 527), is often found in a subordinate clause if there is a negative, such as *nicht, kein, niemand, etc.*, in either clause or in both clauses. It also occurs in the subordinate clause when the effect of a negative is produced by other means, such as a question in the principal clause, a comparative—or *zu* and a positive—in the principal followed by *als daß* in the subordinate clause, etc.; as, so verging doch keine Woche, in welcher ich nicht wenigstens einen Abend bei ihnen zugebracht hätte *so no week passed in which I did not spend at least one evening*

at their house; ich weiß niemanden, dem ich vertrauen könnte I know nobody in whom I can confide; wann hat es einen Vater gegeben, der mehr für seine Kinder getan hätte when was there a father who did more for his children? et ist größer, als daß ihm der Neid schaden könnte he is too great for envy to harm him. But the indicative is being increasingly used here, unless the idea of unreality enters as a factor.

Subjunctive of Purpose

542. The subjunctive is much used in clauses of purpose, which are commonly introduced by *dass* or *damit*; as, *sie eilte dem Sohne nach, dass sie ihn irgendwo fand' und ihn mit gütigen Worten wieder erfreute she hastened after her son in order that she might find him somewhere and cheer him again with kind words; denn das sag' ich euch, damit ihr's wisset for I tell you that so that you may know it.* In the prose of to-day the indicative, mostly after a present tense, is frequently found in such clauses; the use of the subjunctive is waning, unless there is uncertainty about the outcome.

Subjunctive of Indirectness

543. A thought is often expressed indirectly as reported, recognized, etc. Thus, the sentence *I am ill* may become in indirect statement *he says that he is ill, he thinks that he is ill, he fears that he is ill, he knows that he is ill*, etc. In German the mood of the subordinate clause in such indirect statements is sometimes indicative, sometimes subjunctive, varying with the expression on which the clause depends. Thus, the subordinate clause may occur:

1. With verbs of saying, reporting, answering, confessing, and the like. Owing to the more mechanical use of the subjunctive in clauses dependent on such verbs and because the rules for the use of the tenses are more elaborate and

deviate more from the English idiom, this phase of the subject is treated under *Indirect Discourse* (§§ 547–551).

2. With verbs of wishing, requesting, beseeching, advising, warning, allowing, hindering, and the like. Here the subjunctive is regularly found in the subordinate clause; as, *betend, daß Gott dich erhalte praying that God keep you*; *gebietet der Natur mit eurem mächt'gen Willen, daß sie lebe command nature with your mighty will to live*; *mit jedem Hauche fast ungeduldig wünschend, daß er der letzte sei wishing almost impatiently at every breath that it might be the last*; *ich rate dir, daß du fleißiger werdest I advise you to be more diligent*; *er erlaubte, daß der Knabe eintrete he allowed the boy to enter*; *hindre nicht, daß sie die Weihe des väterlichen Hauses nun vollbringe do not hinder her from accomplishing the purification of her ancestral house*. But the indicative also occurs after these verbs to express certainty of accomplishment or fulfilment.

(a) For the subjunctive in clauses introduced by *däß* and expressing a wish without a preceding verb of wishing (as, *däß mich die Nacht verschläng*) see § 532, 1.

3. With verbs of thinking, believing, feeling, hoping, doubting, fearing, and the like. The indicative is the rule if the statement in the object clause is regarded as a fact; as, *ich glaub', er hat das Lachen verlernt I believe he has forgotten how to laugh*; *doch, fürcht' ich, sammelt sie nur neue Kraft zu tiefstem Schmerz but she is gathering fresh strength for deeper sorrow, I fear*.

(a) But the subjunctive is used if the speaker wishes to avoid making the statement the expression of his own opinion, or if he regards it as uncertain or unreal. The subjunctive may also be due to a negative (§ 541) or to a tense of the past group in the principal clause (§ 527, 1). It is, however, much more common in poetry and in older literature than in recent prose; as, *wer glaubt noch, daß dergleichen möglich sei who believes still that such a thing is possible? ich*

habe nie gezweifelt, daß man sein Fortkommen in der Welt finden könne, wenn es einem Ernst ist *I have never doubted that one can get on in the world if one is in earnest;* doch darf ich hoffen, daß der zweite in nicht zu langer Zeit nachfolgen werde *still, I dare hope that the second (volume) will follow in not too long a time;* er fürchtete, daß er das Geld verlöre *he feared that he might lose the money;* weil du ruhig bist, glaubst du denn, wir wären's auch *because you are calm, do you then believe that we are too?*

4. With verbs of knowing, seeing, perceiving, and the like. After such verbs the indicative is, of course, the rule as the statement in the object clause is regarded as a fact. But the subjunctive was not so uncommon formerly, and still occurs occasionally for such reasons as those given for the subjunctive in the foregoing paragraph and sometimes without apparent reason; as, ganz London weiß, daß an dem allen kein wahres Wort sei *all London knows that there is not a word of truth in all that;* hübsch ist sie, aber ich wüßte doch nicht, daß sie Eindruck auf mich gemacht hätte *she is pretty, but I do not really know that she has made an impression upon me.*

5. In appositive clauses. Such clauses are in apposition with nouns of kindred meaning with the verbs mentioned above, and the mood is indicative or subjunctive for the same reasons; as, die Hoffnung, daß sie den Sieg davon tragen würden *the hope that they would win the victory;* der Gedanke, daß alles vergänglich ist *the thought that all is transitory.*

Subjunctive in Indirect Questions

544. Indirect questions, which are found in subordinate clauses after the interrogatives *ob, wer, welcher, was, wie, warum, woraus*, etc., are a form of indirect statement. Their mood is also often the subjunctive; as, indem sie einen Blick zurückwarf, ob der Erwartete denn noch nicht käme *while she*

cast a glance behind her (to see) whether the expected one was not coming after all; sage, wer du seist say who you are; ich wartete auf Nachricht, wann euer Hochzeitstag sein würde I waited for news when your wedding day would be; wir könnten einzeln erfahren, wie bitter die schmerzhafte Flucht sei we could learn in detail how bitter painful flight is. But the tendency is now strongly towards the indicative, especially after a present tense in the principal clause. The subjunctive is still obligatory, however, after a past tense in the principal clause if the speaker feels uncertainty about the statement in the subordinate clause.

545. The preceding paragraphs do not specify all the possible subordinate clauses, but the mood of those not mentioned is determined by the considerations explained above. The modal auxiliaries, sometimes in the indicative, sometimes in the subjunctive, and a dependent infinitive may take the place of the subjunctive of the simple verb, but much less frequently than the English idiom might cause us to believe.

546. The subjunctive is steadily losing ground. The tendency to give it up is most evident in constructions where it was formerly employed in the subordinate clause as a sign of grammatical dependency. Modern usage is increasingly disposed to insist upon the element of contingency or unreality in the mood and to let other constructions take its place where this element is lacking. This feeling is the cause of the growing frequency of the indicative in the subordinate clause after the present indicative in the principal clause. On the other hand, the subjunctive is still commonly retained in several constructions after the past indicative in the principal clause, for the past is apt to convey somewhat of the sense of unreality. The individuality of the speaker is also sometimes a factor in the choice of the mood. One person likes to speak positively and uses the indicative; another is cautious and uses the subjunctive. Thus, one person's subjunctive may mean neither more nor less than another's indicative.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

547. Indirect discourse is the reporting of the words of a person, sometimes those of the speaker himself, in some

other form than that in which they were uttered. It is indirect quotation as contrasted with direct quotation, in which the exact words are repeated. It is a phase of indirect statement (§ 543, 1). The management of the person of the verb and of a pronoun as subject is the same in English and German, but the use of mood and tense is different.

548. Mood. German regularly changes the indicative to the subjunctive in indirect discourse. Through this shifting of the mood it is enabled to avoid the monotonous repetition of the main verb (of saying, reporting, etc.) or of the conjunction. It can sometimes even omit the main verb entirely.

549. Tense. In passing from direct to indirect discourse the same tense is used except that the past and past perfect indicative of the direct are changed to the present perfect subjunctive in the indirect. This change seems to be due to the sense of unreality that is apt to attach to the past and past perfect, while indirect discourse has nothing to do with the truth or falsity of the statement. A subjunctive in the direct is retained in the indirect discourse. An imperative is commonly paraphrased by the aid of the subjunctive of *sollen* or *mögen*, but sometimes, as in English also, by an infinitive or indicative. Thus, *er sei hier auf dem Schloß, behaupten sie, und wenn du ihn nicht losgebfst, werde man ihn mit dem Schwerte zu befreien wissen* *he is in the castle, they assert, and if you do not let him go, they will know how to free him with the sword;* *er antwortete, er habe keine Zeit gehabt* *he answered that he had not had time;* *ich aber sagte, ich wisse nichts zu singen, was für solche Herrschaften schön genug wäre* *but I said I could sing nothing that would be fine enough for such ladies and gentlemen;* *er sagte mir, ich solle schnell gehen* *he said to me that I should go quickly.* Or, with omission of the main verb: *auch später erfuhr man nichts von ihr.* *Sie wisse nicht, wie es gekommen; man solle ihr vergeben, daß sie so*

kindisch geweint habe later, too, they could learn nothing from her. She said that she did not know how it had come about and that they should forgive her for having wept so childishly.

1. The strict enforcement of the foregoing rule seems to be the goal to which the language is tending, but it is still generally modified if its application would result in a subjunctive identical in form with the same tense of the indicative. In such a case the present indicative is changed to the past subjunctive; the past, present perfect, and past perfect indicative to the past perfect subjunctive; the future indicative to the past future; and the future perfect indicative to the past future perfect. The change of tense shows that indirect discourse is intended, and is commonly made even if the shifted tense is also identical with the indicative. Thus, sie fragte, ob die Kinder sich angekleidet hätten *she asked whether the children had dressed themselves;* sein Herr hatte gesagt, die Postpferde würden vor sieben vors Haus kommen *his master had said that the post horses would be at the house before seven;* er fragte mich, warum ich nicht nach dem Arzt schicke, *he asked me why I did not send for the physician.*

2. The old law for the harmony of tenses called, in general, for a tense of the present group after the present and one of the past group after the past in the principal clause. Tenses according to this old law still abound, though diminishing in number, and we therefore find many pasts where the modern rules require a present; as, er sagte mir, daß seine Mutter frank wäre *he told me that his mother was ill;* ich fragte, ob es nicht reiche Bauern gäbe *I asked if there were no rich peasants.* Dialectic influences and considerations of style also play some part, and there consequently exists considerable confusion still in the tense of the subjunctive in indirect discourse.

550. Indicative in Indirect Discourse. The speaker may accept the statement which he reports as a fact and so use the indicative; thus,

Freund und Feind sagen, daß er der tapferste Mann von der Welt ist *friends and foes say that he is the bravest man in the world.* In this way a mixture of the mood may result; as, sie erfuhr, daß es eine Dame gewesen sei, die sie (= flowers) bestellt hat *she learned that it was a lady who ordered them.* That is, the speaker knew that the flowers were ordered.

551. The indicative also occurs in indirect discourse when the speaker is not vouching for the statement. The construction is commonest in familiar speech. The tenses are generally managed as in English, but the tense of the direct discourse may be kept; as, er sagt, er hat Hunger *he says he is hungry;* er begeisterte seinen Sohn durch seinen Bericht. Er war zu Mittag geladen worden, er hatte Liebitzeier gegessen *he enraptured his son by his report. (He said that) he had been invited to dinner, (that) he had eaten lapwing's eggs; ich soll mir mein Brot verdienen, sagt' er *I must earn my living.**

Past Future and Past Future Perfect Subjunctive

552. As already explained in § 202, these tenses are often called respectively the present and perfect conditional. Their use may be summarized as follows: 1. The past future occurs not infrequently, with the force of the future to the past, in clauses dependent on verbs in the past, present perfect, or past perfect; as, ich wußte, daß Sie kommen würden *I knew that you would come.* 2. The past future also occurs in the conclusive clause of complete and incomplete conditional sentences expressing a future possibility. See § 535, 2 for illustrations. 3. The past future is often substituted for the past subjunctive, and the past future perfect for the past perfect subjunctive, in the conclusive clause of complete and incomplete conditions contrary to fact. See § 536 for illustrations and § 536, 1 for the tendency to use these tenses in the conditional clause of conditional sentences. 4. The past future may be substituted for the future subjunctive, and the past future perfect for the future perfect subjunctive, especially where the future and future perfect indicative and subjunctive have the same form. See § 549, 1 for an illustration.

Imperative

553. The imperative in German corresponds to the imperative in English. It is restricted to the second person, singular and plural. The pronouns *du* and *ihr* (but not *Sie*) are nearly always omitted, but are occasionally inserted for emphasis. The use of the three forms of the imperative is governed by the rules for *du*, *ihr*, and *Sie* in §§ 353, 354; as, *tue Recht und scheue niemand do right and fear no one*; *sprecht nicht von Rache speak not of revenge*; *seien Sie mir nicht gram do not be angry with me*; *sei du mein Freund be thou my friend*.

1. Strictly speaking, the imperative has only the present tense, but a kind of present perfect occurs very rarely; as, in *die Ede, Besen! Seid's gewesen*, where the speaker means that the transformed broom should lose its human form and, going into the corner, become a broom again.

554. Missing Forms. An imperative for other persons than the second may be formed by:

1. The present subjunctive. For details see § 530.
2. The imperative of *lassen* with a dependent infinitive, for the first person plural; as, *laß uns nachsinnen let us reflect*; *laßt uns fliehen let us flee*; *lassen Sie uns den rechten suchen let us look for the right one*. The object pronoun is frequently omitted; as, *lassen Sie doch sehen let us see*. This construction is, however, probably not so common as the subjunctive plural from 1 above; as, *fliehen wir*, instead of *laß*, *laßt*, or *lassen Sie uns fliehen*.

(a) With a second personal pronoun, instead of *uns*, as object, the construction with *lassen* is merely a substitute for the regular imperative, and the infinitive generally has passive force (§ 574); as, *laß dich warnen be warned*.

Substitutes for the Imperative

555. Several constructions are used as equivalents of the imperative:

1. The infinitive without *zu*; as, *nichts heraustragen* *do not carry anything out*; *nicht abergläubisch sein* *do not be superstitious*.

2. The past participle; as, *Licht herbeigeschafft bring a light*; *still gestanden stand still*.

3. The present and future indicative, a modal auxiliary with dependent infinitive, a noun, an adverb, a question, a subordinate clause, mostly agreeing with the English construction; as, *du bleibst hier you stay here*; *du wirst den Apfel schießen von dem Kopf des Knaben you will shoot the apple from the head of the boy*; *ihr sollt nicht gehen you shall not go*; *Geduld patience*; *den Schlauch her here with the hose*; *dass du mir kein Wort mehr mit denen redest don't you talk with them any more*.

INFINITIVE

556. The infinitive expresses the general sense of the verb without indicating person and number. It is both noun and verb, being able to assume some of the relations of the noun and at the same time be modified by an adverb, an object, or a predicate noun or adjective. Despite their names, the tenses of the infinitive do not indicate the time of the action. That is shown by the principal verb. For the position of the modifiers of an infinitive see § 651.

557. Substantive Infinitive. The infinitive is often used as an actual noun and may then take the definite article, an adjective, or other modifier of a noun; as, *vom vielen Gehen from much walking*; *dies Zürnen steht dir gut this anger becomes you well*. Occasionally such a noun occurs in the plural; as, *die kleinen Leiden des menschlichen Lebens the little sorrows of human life*.

1. A noun modifying a substantive infinitive is in the genitive or in the dative with *von*; as, *ein reges Treiben geschäftiger Menschen, ein Brüllen von Kühen, ein Wiehern von Pferden* *no brisk activity of busy men, no lowing of cows, no neighing of horses*. Compounds of an infinitive and a preceding noun or other modifier may be regarded as nouns; thus, *wenn sie von Augauskratzen sprach when she spoke of scratching out eyes*; *das durch die Straßen Geschleppt-, das Angegafft- und Angestarrt-*

werden the being dragged through the streets, gaped and stared at. But there is much variation in the use of the initial capital in the loosest of these compounds. See also § 579.

558. In its ordinary uses the infinitive occurs sometimes with and sometimes without *zu*. This word originally had its prepositional force before an infinitive, and traces of the older construction still survive. (See §§ 568, 2 and 569.) But *zu*, like *to*, has now become in most cases a mere sign of the infinitive. It is therefore necessary to distinguish between the infinitive with and without *zu*. The former has gained at the expense of the latter. The discussion below is based on the prevailing usage in careful modern prose. In familiar speech and still more in older literature there occur, in addition to the classes mentioned below, many isolated cases of the infinitive without *zu* where present usage distinctly favors the other form.

559. The English verbal noun ending in *ing* is frequently equivalent to a German infinitive. Thus, *loben* or *zu loben* may be represented by *praise*, *to praise*, or *praising*. The English infinitive, including this verbal noun, is more extensively used than the German (§§ 579, 580), though the latter is found in a few constructions where it would be impossible in English.

*Infinitive without *zu**

560. The infinitive without *zu* as subject is discussed in § 571, as an appositive in § 572, in absolute constructions in § 573, and as a substitute for the imperative in § 566, 1. The paradigms show its use in forming compound tenses of verbs. It is also found:

561. In Predicate. With *sein*, *heißen* (*be, be called*), and *bleiben*; as, *Schreiben ist nicht sprechen writing is not speaking*; *das heißt Gott versuchen that is tempting God*; *er blieb stehen he stopped*; *bleiben Sie sitzen keep your seat*. The infinitive occurs occasionally in predicate with a few other verbs.

562. With Modal Auxiliaries and *lassen*. The latter verb is mentioned here, as it becomes, in effect, an auxiliary if

used in the sense of *let* or *cause* with an infinitive. See § 480 for details about the modal auxiliaries. Illustrations for *lassen* are: *du hast mich rufen lassen* *you have had me called*; *laß es stehen* *let it be*; *die liebe Mutter läßt dich grüßen* *our dear mother sends her greetings*; *laß dich warnen* *be warned*. See also under the imperative, § 554, 2. *Lassen* is like the modal auxiliaries (§ 218) in using its infinitive instead of its past participle with a dependent infinitive. The dependent infinitive may be passive in meaning, though active in form; see § 574.

1. *Brauchen*, when equivalent to *dürfen*, sometimes takes the infinitive without *zu*; on the other hand, *vermögen* takes the infinitive with *zu*.

563. With Verbs. The verbs frequently governing the infinitive without *zu* are *finden*, *fühlen*, *heissen* (*bid*), *helfen*, *hören*, *lehren*, *lernen*, *machen*, *nennen*, and *sehen*; *as*, *wir sollen hier dulden und tragen lernen* *we are to learn here to suffer and to endure*; *am nächsten Montag fand er sie bereits an ihrem Platz sitzen* *on the next Monday he found her already sitting at her place*; *er hieß den Knaben zu Tische gehen* *he bade the boy go to dinner*; *mit wetternder Posaunen Laut mach' es verstummen aller Kirchen Glocken* *with the sound of thunderous trumpets may it put to silence the bells of all churches*; *wer hat ihn von Tapferkeit jemals reden hören* *who has ever heard him talk of courage?* This last sentence illustrates the use, with dependent infinitive, of the infinitive instead of the past participle after the manner of the modal auxiliaries (§ 218). The construction is common, though not obligatory, with *heissen*, *sehen*, and *hören*, and not uncommon with *führen*, *helfen*, *lernen*, *lehren*, and *machen*.

1. The verbs in the above list are merely the remnants of different classes which governed the infinitive without *zu*. Therefore the syntactical relation of the dependent infinitive to these verbs is not always the same. With some of them the infinitive has the sense of the present participle or is historically the mutilated present participle. In fact,

finden more often takes the present participle than the infinitive, and the same construction is not uncommon with *sehen* and *machen*. See § 583, 3.

2. Particularly with *sehen* and *hören*, the infinitive may have the force of a passive. See § 574. See also the infinitive with subject-accusative, § 577.

3. The infinitive with *zu* is occasionally found with some of the verbs above. On the other hand, the infinitive without *zu* occurs occasionally, as a survival, with verbs not mentioned here at all.

564. A few verbs which ordinarily take the infinitive with *zu* take it regularly without *zu* in special constructions:

1. *Gehen*, *fahren*, and *reiten*, in a few set phrases, to show the purpose of the action; as, *spazieren gehen*, *fahren*, *reiten* *take a walk*, *drive*, *ride*; *schlafen gehen go to bed*; *betteln gehen go begging*. Occasionally this construction occurs where a dependent infinitive with *zu* or *um ... zu* is now the rule; as, *ich gehe die Eltern weden I am going (in order) to wake my parents*.

(a) Other verbs of motion occasionally take the infinitive of purpose without *zu*. Here may be included the colloquial *ist jagen*, *fishen*, etc.; as, *du warst also Nahrungsmittel holen you had gone then to get provisions?*

2. *Haben*, when the infinitive has the force of a present participle and also in the idiom with *gut*, *schön*, and *flug*; as, *sie hatte die Bibel auf den Knieen liegen she had the Bible lying on her knees*; *ihr habt gut von Wahrheit und Geradheit reden it is easy for you to talk of truthfulness and straightforwardness*.

3. *Tun*, and occasionally other verbs, with *nichts als*; as, *er tut nichts als schimpfen he does nothing but scold*. For *tun* as an auxiliary see § 514, 1.

565. The present infinitive is the regular construction in all of the uses described above except sometimes with the modal auxiliaries (§ 514, 1). In both English and German the idea of completion seldom enters into any of these uses; if it does, it is expressed by the past participle, not by the past infinitive, or by some other device.

*Infinitive with *zu**

566. The infinitive with *zu* as subject is discussed in § 571, as an appositive in § 572, and in absolute constructions in § 573. It is also found:

567. In Predicate. With active force with *dünken* and *scheinen*; with passive force with *sein*, *bleiben*, *stehen*, and *scheinen*; as, *ich dünke mich etwas zu sein* *I deem myself to be something*; *sie scheint reich zu sein* *she seems to be rich*; *vieles scheint noch zu tun* *there still seems much to do*; *es steht nicht zu ändern* *it cannot be changed*; *das bleibt noch zu erledigen* *that remains to be disposed of*; *heute war etwas vorwitziges Gras zu entfernen* *to-day some pert grass was to be removed*.

568. With Verbs. The infinitive with *zu* is used:

1. As the object or complement of many verbs; thus, *er fing an zu übersetzen* *he began to translate*; *es hat aufgehört zu regnen* *it has ceased to rain*; *er erwartete von ihm angegriffen zu werden* *he expected to be attacked by him*; *ich befahle dir zu gehen* *I command you to go*. This construction corresponds pretty closely to the English infinitive with *to*, but the latter is used more widely.

2. With a few verbs, such as *haben*, *bekommen*, *geben*, and *gelten*, to denote possibility or necessity, sometimes with passive force; as, *das gibt mir zu denken* *that gives me food for thought*; *es gilt den Beweis zu führen* *it is necessary to produce the proof*; *was hatte sie an diesem Ort zu schaffen* *what had she to do at this place?* *den ganzen Weg, den er zurückzulegen hatte* *the whole distance which he had to cover*.

(a) Though in this use *haben* is sometimes quite near in meaning to *müssen*, the two words never have exactly the same force. Contrast *I have to write a letter* and *I have a letter to write*; *I have to sell my horse* and *I have a horse to sell*.

3. Often to express purpose. The infinitive phrase is then frequently preceded by a strengthening *um*, which may be separated from it by intervening words. The construction corresponds to *to* or *in order to* with the infinitive; as, *sie werden kommen, unsre Schafe und Kinder zu zählen* *they will come to count our sheep and cattle*; *er erhob sich beim Nähen der Rütsche, um seine Gäste zu begrüßen* *he arose at the approach*

of the carriage in order to greet his guests. This construction also occurs after verbal nouns and adjectives (§ 569) and preserves most nearly the original prepositional force of *zu* with the infinitive.

569. With Nouns and Adjectives. The infinitive with *zu* dependent on a noun or an adjective may be the equivalent of a genitive or express purpose or otherwise complete the meaning of the noun or adjective; as, die Ehre, für den Bund geföpft zu werden *the honor of being beheaded for the alliance*; haben Sie die Güte, dies von mir anzunehmen *be so good as to accept this from me*; die Hoffnung, Sie hier zu sehen *the hope of seeing you here*; lieblich zu kosten *pleasant to taste*; dieser Brief ist schwer zu lesen *this letter is hard to read*; ich bin nicht jung genug, vor Götzen mich zu neigen *I am not young enough to bow down before idols*; das Glück ist zu groß, um dauerhaft zu sein *the good fortune is too great to be lasting*. *Zu* often retains here something of its prepositional force. The infinitive dependent on a predicate adjective may be active in form but passive in meaning (§ 574).

i. After *zu* and an adjective the infinitive is often replaced by a subordinate clause introduced by *als daß*. Thus, the last German sentence above may be changed to *das Glück ist zu groß, als daß es dauerhaft sein sollte*.

570. With Prepositions. The three prepositions (*an*)statt, ohne, and um can govern the infinitive with *zu*. They regularly precede all modifiers of the infinitive; as, anstatt zu lachen, meinte er *he wept instead of laughing*; ohne von der Stelle zu gehen *without going from the spot*. For *um* see also § 568, 2.

Infinitive as Subject

571. The infinitive, with or without *zu*, is often the subject of a sentence; as, Übel fliehen wird im allgemeinen für leichter gehalten als Übel tragen *fleeing from ills is considered easier, on the whole, than bearing ills*; den Reichtum zu verschmähen ist

auch Reichtum *to disdain riches* is also *riches*. Oftener the infinitive stands in nominal apposition to es or das (§ 572). The infinitive with zu is the commoner as subject.

Infinitive in Apposition

572. The infinitive, with or without zu, often stands in apposition with es or das, and the infinitive with zu is also often an appositive to a compound of da(r) and a preposition; as, ich stelle mir das viel schöner vor, Landwirt sein *I think of that as much finer, to be a farmer*; Sie verdienen es, mich ebenso wahrhaftig zu finden *you deserve to find me just as truthful*; mein Vater wird stolz darauf sein, euch an seinem Tische zu sehen *my father will be proud to see you at his table*. Such apposition is merely nominal, as es, das, and the compound with da(r) are, in effect, expletives, but the infinitive, nearly always without zu, does occasionally occur in actual apposition; as, das hoffnungslose Wort, nie wiederkehren *the hopeless word of never to return*.

Infinitive Absolute

573. The infinitive with zu is used absolutely as the equivalent of a subordinate clause; thus, dem er, so zu sagen, das Wort aus dem Munde genommen hatte *out of whose mouth he had, so to speak, taken the word*. The infinitive without zu for the imperative (§ 565, 1), and the infinitive, with or without zu, in exclamations (§ 609, 2) are also independent elements.

Active Infinitive with Passive Force

574. As already mentioned in several places in the preceding paragraphs, the infinitive may be active in form but passive in meaning. The construction occurs with:

1. The infinitive without zu dependent on lassen (§ 562), hören, sehen, and, less frequently, a few other verbs (§ 563);

as, *laß dich warnen* *be warned*; *von wem hast du das erzählen hören* *by whom did you hear that told?* The construction is especially frequent with *lassen*.

2. The infinitive with *zu* in predicate with *sein*, *bleiben*, *stehen*, and *scheinen* (§ 567), or dependent on a predicate adjective (§ 569), or dependent on a few verbs, such as *haben*, *bekommen*, *geben*, and *gelten* (§ 568); thus, *kein Mensch war zu sehen* *no person was to be seen*; *das bleibt noch zu erledigen* *that still remains to be settled*; *dieser Brief ist schwer zu lesen* *this letter is hard to read*; *man gab uns zu essen* *they gave us (something) to eat*; *es gibt noch viel zu tun* *there is still much to be done* (or *to do*); *wir haben keinen Augenblick zu verlieren* *we have not a moment to lose*. Notice also such English constructions as *these shops are to let*, *there are nine runs to make*.

English Infinitives

575. An English infinitive must often be translated into German by means of a different construction. Only a few characteristic difficulties, which may, however, aid in making the German infinitive more intelligible, can be considered here.

576. If the English infinitive with *to* is dependent on a verb, the manner of its translation into German can ordinarily be determined by first expanding the infinitive phrase into a clause. Thus, the sentence *the traveler hopes to return soon* becomes in the expanded form *the traveler hopes that he may return soon*, and the subject of the subordinate clause refers back to that of the principal clause. If the subject thus remains the same, the infinitive can generally be retained in the German or the expanded clause used, as in English. Or if the infinitive cannot be expanded, as in *he begins to sing*, it can generally be kept in German. But such a sentence as *I wished him to go* becomes, on expansion, *I wished that he would go*. Here the subject of the subordinate clause is not the same as that of the principal clause, and the infinitive cannot ordinarily be used in German. Generally such infinitive phrases would involve a subject-accusative in German.

577. **Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.** In the sentence *I wished him to go* the pronoun *him* is both the object of *wished* and the subject of *to go*. Such subject-accusatives are very common in English, but are

confined within very narrow limits in modern German. They may be found after bitten, finden, fühlen, heißen, hören, lassen, lehren, lernen, and, less frequently, after one or two other verbs. The verbs mentioned, except bitten, govern the infinitive without zu (§ 563). In the sentence die Offiziere befahlen den Soldaten, den Feind anzugreifen (*the officers commanded the soldiers to attack the enemy*) the infinitive is admissible as Soldaten is in the dative. The infinitive and the subordinate clause are therefore both possible with verbs governing the dative, such as raten, helfen, befehlen.

578. The subordinate clause, not the infinitive, must be used in translating the English infinitives in such constructions as *he asked where to go*, *he did not know what to say*, *show him how to do it*, and the like.

English Verbal Nouns Ending in ing

579. A German infinitive used as a noun is oftenest equivalent to an English verbal noun ending in *ing*; as, das Laufen *running*, das Singen *singing*. The German substantive infinitive can be modified by a genitive or a phrase with von (§ 557, 1) after the manner of an actual noun, but the English verbal noun can, in addition, govern an object or be accompanied by other constructions; as, *reading books is easier than writing books*; *your being strangers astonishes me*; *staring about aimlessly will do no good*. Unless a compound can be made after the manner of those mentioned in § 557, 1, the German substantive infinitive is impossible in such constructions. The infinitive with zu, a subordinate clause, or some other device must be used in its stead.

580. The English verbal noun is used freely after prepositions; as, *on seeing him*, *by approaching nearer*, *for maintaining the right*. But German restricts the use of prepositions in such constructions to um, (an)statt, and ohne (§ 570) and the infinitive with zu, unless the infinitive has become an actual noun. These three prepositions can be used with the infinitive if the subject would be the same in both clauses on expanding the infinitive phrase. If the subjects should not be the same in both clauses, the infinitive is ordinarily impossible and a subordinate clause must be substituted for it. With other prepositions German makes a compound with da(r) and lets the infinitive stand as a sort of appositive (§ 572), provided the subject would remain the same in both clauses on expanding. If the subjects should not be the same, the compound of da(r) and the preposition is generally retained and a subordinate clause substituted for the infinitive.

PARTICIPLES

581. The participles are verbal adjectives, that is, they can be used as adjectives and at the same time take the modifiers of a verb. Though they are distinguished by name as present and past, they do not commonly indicate the time of the action, which, as in English, is shown by the main verb. In their adjective use they are declined like an adjective in the same situation. Some participles have become actual adjectives; as, *reizend charming*, *gelehrt learned*. Such participles and, to a limited extent, others also can be used as adverbs. For the position of the modifiers of a participle see § 649.

Present Participle

582. The present participle has active force; as, *der jetzt lebende Kaiser* *the emperor now living*; *er schrieb Folgendes* *he wrote the following*; *die ermunternde Worte* *the encouraging words*.

1. It has passive force in a few stereotyped expressions; as, *fahrende* *movables*; *reitende Artillerie* *mounted artillery*; *die vorhabende Reise* *the intended journey*. These expressions were formerly more numerous. Some of them, as the first illustration, for example, may be explained as originally active.

Uses of the Present Participle

583. The present participle is used:

1. As an adjective, standing before its noun or used substantively; thus, *ein belehrendes Buch* *an instructive book*; *der Vorsitzende* *the president*.

2. As an undeclined appositive adjective; thus, *umhergehend heftet er die Augen meist auf den Boden* *in walking about he mostly looks down*; „*Ja, tapfer sein!*“ *schräte er, aufs neue in Ärger geratend* “*Yes, be brave!*” *he screamed, getting angry again.*

(a) Such an appositive is equivalent to a subordinate clause and generally modifies the subject of the sentence. The construction belongs to poetry and literary prose rather than to ordinary speech, but it is nowhere so common as in English. It occurs oftenest when denoting an accompanying circumstance or describing a state or condition. A host of such participles must be rendered by subordinate clauses or otherwise avoided in translating from English into German.

3. In predicate. Commonly only participles which have become actual adjectives can be so used; as, sie ist reizend *she is charming*; das ist sehr ermüdend *that is very fatiguing*. But a present participle referring to the object occurs often after a few verbs; as, ich hab' einmal den Herrn geltend gemacht *for once I have asserted myself as master*; ich fand ihn schreibend *I found him writing*. For these verbs see § 563, 1. For the relation of such a predicate participle to the object see § 324, 2.

(a) The use of the present participle to form tenses, as in *I am sitting*, is no longer allowed in German, but a passage occasionally occurs which approximates this use; as, ich werde jetzt erst recht verlangend *I am getting more than ever desirous*; die Herzogin war nachdenkend *the duchess was thoughtful*. But the adjective force is now uppermost even here.

4. As future passive participle. The present participle of transitive verbs, preceded by zu, often forms a sort of future passive participle (the so-called gerundive) which can only be used adjectively (but not as an appositive or predicate adjective); as, die in der Schule zu lehrenden Gegenstände *the subjects to be taught at school*; das gedroschene Korn wie das noch auszudreschende *the threshed grain as well as that which was still to be threshed*.

5. Sometimes absolutely; as, die alte Sprache anlangend, so denke ich ganz wie Sie respecting the antiquated language, *I am of the same opinion as you*. This is different from the not infrequent construction in which the participle modifies an accusative absolute (§ 471); as, am Herde stand seine

Herrin, die Arme an den Hüften herabhängend *its mistress stood by the fire, her arms hanging down by her side.*

Past Participle

584. The force of the past participle depends on the nature of the verb:

1. If the verb is transitive, its past participle has passive force and can be used attributively, substantively, or appositively, as will be seen in the sentences below.

2. If the verb is intransitive with *sein* as its auxiliary, its past participle has active force and can be used as an attributive adjective only when it represents a condition resulting from the action of the verb; as, *der gefallene Schnee* (*snow*) but not *der gegangene Mann*.

3. If the verb is intransitive with *haben* as its auxiliary, or is reflexive, its past participle can only be used in forming compound tenses and not as an adjective.

(a) Occasional exceptions to these rules occur, mostly with participles that have assumed more or less completely the force of adjectives.

585. A combination of *habend* or *gewesen* with the past participle occurs occasionally; as, *das sie betroffen habende Unglück* *the misfortune that had befallen them*; *der in jüngeren Jahren vielbegehrt gewesene Arzt* *the physician who had been much sought after in his younger years*. An unnecessary *gehabt* or *gewesen* is not infrequently added to the perfect or pluperfect in colloquial style; as, *das hab' ich gar nicht gesehen gehabt* *I haven't seen that at all*.

Uses of the Past Participle

586. In addition to its use in forming compound tenses and in the passive, the past participle is found:

1. As an adjective before its noun or used substantively; as, *die geliebte Mutter* *the beloved mother*; *zwei Vermählte* *two married people*.

2. As an appositive adjective, under the same conditions as the present participle (§ 583, 2 a) but found oftener in ordinary prose; as, ein Tag gemacht zu früherem Ding als sich zu schlagen *a day made for pleasanter things than to fight*; von einem Pfeile getroffen, sank er zu Boden *struck by an arrow, he sank down*.

3. In predicate; as, der Bote schien erwartet *the messenger seemed (to be) expected*. This construction is mostly confined to participles that have become actual adjectives except in the quasi-passive (§ 493). A past participle referring to the object often occurs, however, in predicate; thus, maßt euch auf Schlimmes gefaßt *prepare yourself for bad news*; die Freude, ihren Sohn gerettet zu wissen *the joy of knowing that her son was saved*. For the relation of such a predicate participle to the object see § 324, 2.

(a) Here belongs a peculiar passive construction impossible in English; as, ein entlaufen Schaf gehört in seinen Stall geliefert *a runaway sheep should be delivered into its fold*; er trug einen Spaten geschultert *he bore a spade on his shoulder*; was bringt ihr da getragen *what are you bringing there in your arms?* die Luther geschenkt erhalten hatte *which Luther had received as a present*.

4. Rarely with the force of a verbal noun, especially after nach; as, nach weggeworfenen Pantoffeln *after throwing off my slippers*.

5. With kommen, rarely gehen, where English has the present participle; as, es kam ein Vogel geflogen *a bird came flying*; da kamen Sie zur Tür hereingestürmt *then you came rushing in at the door*. The construction is confined almost entirely to verbs of motion conjugated with sein.

6. Equivalent to an infinitive and, at times, interchangeable with the present infinitive; as, frisch gewagt ist halb gewonnen *boldly begun is half done*; lieber die schönsten Zähne nicht gezeigt, als alle Augenblicke das Herz darüber springen lassen *better not to show the finest teeth than to let one's heart*

jump over them every minute; heißt das geladen do you call that a load?

7. In absolute constructions; as, sein Buch fiel ihm aus der Hand, überrascht wie er war *in his surprise his book fell out of his hand;* bei Lichte befehen, was war auch anders zu tun *considering the matter soberly, what else was there to do?* The participle often accompanies an accusative absolute (§ 471), mostly as if dependent on habend understood; thus, er saß wieder auf seinem Sessel, den Kopf in die Hand gestützt *he was again sitting on his seat, his head resting in his hand.*

8. As a substitute for the imperative, apparently by ellipsis (§ 555, 2).

ADVERBS

587. In addition to the actual adverbs German uses most adjectives and some participles (§ 581), without declension, as adverbs.

588. Classification. According to their meaning, adverbs may be roughly classified as those of: 1. Time; as, jetzt *now*, nie *never*, lange *long*. 2. Place and direction of motion; as, hier *here*, fort forth, hinab *down*. 3. Manner and quality; as, gut *well*, laut *loudly*, anders *otherwise*. 4. Quantity, measure, degree; as, teils *partly*, zweimal *twice*, ziemlich *tolerably*. 5. Modality; as, nicht *not*, wohl *probably*, daher *therefore*. The last class contains the adverbs which show the relation of one thought to another, thus modifying generally the whole of the sentence rather than a part of it.

USE OF THE FORMS OF COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

589. The positive and comparative of adverbs do not add endings of declension; as, der Brief ist schön geschrieben *the letter is beautifully written*; Sie hätten noch länger warten sollen *you ought to have waited still longer*.

590. Superlative. The uninflected superlative may also

occur; as, ein äußerst erschöpfender Weg *an extremely exhausting path*. Its use is, however, confined to derivatives ending in *ig* and *lich*, and to a few other words, such as *äußerst*, *ergebenst*, *gehorsamst*, *höchst*, *jüngst*, *längst*, *meist*, and *mindest*. Commonly the inflected superlative occurs in a phrase with *an* (*am schönsten*) or *auf* (*aufs schönste*), or a lengthened form in *ens* is used (*schönstens*). The phrase with *an*, which occurs oftenest, is a relative, that with *auf* an absolute, and the form in *ens* either a relative or absolute superlative (§ 329). Occasionally phrases with *zu* or *in* are found (*zum besten*, *im besten*). Examples: *er saß am liebsten auf dem Stuhl neben ihr* *he liked best to sit on the chair beside her*; *und so verleßen wir am ersten die, die wir am zärttesten lieben* *and so we wound those first whom we love most tenderly*; *alles war in des Kaisers Garten aufs feinste ausgedacht* *everything in the emperor's garden was planned in the finest way possible*; *schlimmstens den Verlust geliebter Menschen* *at the worst the loss of loved persons*; *davor wahr' ich dich zum mindesten* *I shall at least preserve you from that*.

591. For conjunctions with the positive and comparative, comparison with *mehr* and *am meisten*, and descending comparison see the same topics under adjectives.

USES OF THE ADVERB

592. These are about the same in English and German. Besides its occasional use as a noun (§ 280), the adverb occurs:

1. In predicate; as, *meine Zeit ist herum* *my time is up*; *als sie nun miteinander unterwegs waren* *when they were now on their way together*.
2. Modifying a noun or pronoun; as, *von dem dort oben* *from him up there*; *mit dieser da* *with this girl here*; *den Tag darauf* *the day after*.
3. Modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb; as, *eine fast lautlose Stille* *an almost unbroken stillness*; *hald wollte er*

schneller gehen soon he wanted to go faster; weil er noch immer nicht recht wußte wohin because he still did not really know where.

4. Before and after prepositions; *as, gerade vor mir right in front of me; auf immer forever.*

5. Indicating duration and direction, in the latter office either alone or compounded with *her* or *hin*. Such adverbs are used freely, though often omitted in translating into English: (a) After prepositional phrases; *as, nach dem Ofen zu towards the stove; von oben her from above; aus diesem Gedränge heraus out of this crowd.* (b) After adverbial accusatives; *as, die Tage her these last days; zwei Stunden lang for two hours; die Treppe hinunter down the stairs.* (c) As separable prefixes with verbs. See § 499, 1. It is not always easy to decide which of these three uses is intended in a given construction.

6. As substitutes for certain pronouns when compounded with prepositions. The adverbs concerned are *da, wo, and hier.* See §§ 360, 388, 389, 394, 412.

7. As intensives, to strengthen (the effect is, of course, at times to weaken) the assertion; thus, *er wird schon kommen he will surely come; er hatte ja Zeit he had time, you know; setz' dich einmal sit down, please; komm' doch nur heraus do come out anyway.* No clear distinction can be made between the conjunctive (§ 602) and the adverbial use of such words. The abundant use of strengthening adverbs is a marked characteristic of German style as compared with English, and their translation into English is therefore beset with difficulties.

PREPOSITIONS

593. A preposition regularly governs an oblique case of a noun or of an equivalent of a noun, but it may have as its object a substantive clause (§ 622, 5), an infinitive (§ 570), or an adverb (§ 592, 4). In combinations like *halten für*

and gelten für (§ 324, 3), it may be followed by an uninflected adjective. For compounds of prepositions and *da*, *wo*, or *hier* see § 592, 6. For the contraction of article and preposition see § 260.

594. Some of the prepositions have governed different cases in the course of their history. A few still show fluctuations in their usage. The most important of these are mentioned in connection with the lists below. The number of prepositions is still increasing, the gain being mostly among those governing the genitive.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE GENITIVE

595. The genitive is governed by (*an*)statt *instead of*, *diesseit*(*s*) *on this side of*, halb (*halber* or *halben*) *on account of* (with its compounds, *außerhalb* *outside of*, *innerhalb* *inside of*, *oberhalb* *above*, *unterhalb* *below*), *jenseit*(*s*) *on the further side of*, *Kraft* *by virtue of*, längs *along*, laut *according to*, trotz *in spite of*, um . . . willen *on account of*, (*ver*)mittelst (*also mittel**s*) *by means of*, vermöge *by dint of*, während *during*, wegen (*sometimes von wegen*) *on account of*, *Zufolge* *in consequence of*. Thus, statt der Vorhänge *instead of the curtains*; jenseit des Zaunes *on the other side of the fence*; trotz des Eifers *in spite of the zeal*.

1. Längs, trotz, and wegen occur with the dative also, less frequently some of the others. Zufolge governs the genitive if it precedes, and the dative if it follows, its object. Wegen may either precede or follow its object, halb(er) and halben always follow. The object regularly comes between the parts of um . . . willen and may do so with anstatt; as, um meines Frevels willen *on account of my offense*; an der Tochter statt *in the daughter's stead*.

2. These prepositions are all obviously derived from other parts of speech and some of them are perhaps not yet fully fixed in their use as prepositions. The list can be easily increased by the addition of words of the same general character which retain more of their function as other parts of speech. Such are *behus* *for the sake of*, *betreff* *concerning*, *bezüglich* *concerning*, *einschließlich* *including*, *infolge* *in consequence of*, *seitwärts* *sideways from*, *unbeschadet* *without detriment to*, *unfern* or *unweit* *not far from*, *ungeachtet* *notwithstanding*, and a number of others.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE

596. The dative is governed by *ab from*, *aus out of*, *außer outside of*, *besides*, *bei by*, *binnen within*, *entgegen contrary to*, *towards*, *gegenüber opposite*, *gemäß according to*, *mit with*, *nach after*, *nächst (or zunächst) next to*, *nebst together with*, *ob above*, *samt (mitsamt, zusamt) together with*, *seit since*, *von of*, *from*, *zu to*, *zurücker contrary to*. Thus, *aus der Tür out of the door*; *mit dem Kopfe with the head*; *bei der Hand by the hand*.

1. *Ob* is dialectical except in commercial language. *Ob* is now poetical only; meaning *on account of*, it may govern the genitive. Two or three of the others sometimes appear with the genitive. *Nach* and *gemäß* may either precede or follow their object, while *entgegen*, *gegenüber*, and *zurücker* regularly follow. Very occasionally the parts of *gegenüber* are separated; as, *gegen Frankfurt über liegt ein Ding, heißt Sachsenhausen opposite Frankfort lies-a thing by the name of Sachsenhausen*. The list above could be lengthened by the addition of *dank thanks to*, *zuliebe for the sake of*, and the like, but such expressions have not yet become fully developed prepositions.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE ACCUSATIVE

597. The accusative is governed by *bis till*, *durch through*, *für for*, *gegen (or gen) against*, *toward*, *ohne without*, *sonder without*, *um about*, *around*, *wider against*; thus, *für einen Traum for a dream*; *gegen das Fenster against the window*; *durch den Wald through the forest*.

1. *Bis* commonly stands adverbially before prepositions, as *bis auf* for example, but does occur as a preposition in expressions of place and time; as, *bis diesen Augenblick till this moment*. *Gen* and *sonder* are unusual. *Gegen* occasionally occurs in literature with the dative, and *ohne* with the genitive or dative. The distinction now made between *vor* and *für* was formerly not observed, and *für*, as the equivalent of *vor*, could sometimes govern the dative. Here may also be mentioned *entlang*, which may either precede or follow its noun and occurs with the genitive, dative, or accusative. It perhaps appears oftenest following the accusative.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE OR THE ACCUSATIVE

598. The following nine prepositions govern either the dative or the accusative; *an on, at, auf upon, hinter behind, in in, into, neben beside, über above, unter under, among, vor before, zwischen between*. They govern the dative in expressions of rest or motion in a place, and the accusative in expressions of change from one place to another, that is, the dative in answer to the question "where?" and the accusative in answer to the question "whither?" Dependent on a verb of motion not used in its literal sense, these prepositions usually govern the dative or the accusative as they would if the verb were literal. The accusative also occurs, quite unexpectedly from the point of view of English, in expressions analogous to those with verbs of motion or into which a change of place can be read; as, *fleiden in dress in, Aussicht auf prospect of, gestützt auf resting on*. Time when or in which is indicated by the dative, and time until or during which by the accusative with these prepositions. Their other uses are much less simple, and each preposition must be studied for itself. In a general way, however, it may be said that *an, in, unter, and vor* take the dative, *auf* and *über* the accusative in expressions of manner and cause.

1. By the variation of case with these words German can make delicate distinctions which are usually impossible with their English equivalents. The subject really belongs to the dictionary, but a few illustrative sentences are given here: *hat sie Sie nicht am Bahnhof empfangen did she not meet you at the station?* *ich seh' sie ans Feuer hingestreckt I see them stretched out by the fire;* *oben auf dem Felsen on top of the cliff;* *da warf ich mich ins Gras then I threw myself down in the grass;* *über dem Schrank liegt das Sieb the sieve is lying over the chest;* *er legte das Zeitungsblatt neben ihr auf den Tisch he laid the newspaper on the table beside her;* *vor vier oder fünf Wochen four or five weeks ago;* *ich gehe fort, vielleicht auf ein Jahr I am going away, perhaps for a year;* *an wen soll ich schreiben to whom shall I write?* *du bist in das Mädchen verliebt you have fallen in love with the girl;* *in den Tod dir treu faithful to you till death;*

das Fieber war schon Herr über ihn the fever already had the mastery over him; sie hatte immer Angst vor ihm she was always afraid of him, unter all seinen Bekannten among all his acquaintances; ein Anschlag auf die Burg a plot against the castle.

2. For the former lack of distinction between *für* and *vor* see § 597, 1.

CONJUNCTIONS

599. Except in their influence on the order of words, German conjunctions correspond in their use to the English. As a distinct part of speech they are of comparatively late origin. Most of them, in fact, are still employed freely in other relations. Some of the conjunctions, as in English, connect words or other parts of clauses as well as clauses themselves, but this phase of their use needs no further comment here.

600. Classification. Conjunctions are coördinating or subordinating. If coördinating, they connect clauses of the same kind; if subordinating, they join a subordinate clause to its principal clause. The coördinating conjunctions are further divided, according to their relation to the word-order, into general connectives and adverbial conjunctions.

GENERAL CONNECTIVES

601. The general connectives are *und* *and*, *aber*, *allein*, *sondern* *but*, *oder* *or*, *denn* *for*. These conjunctions do not affect the order of words, which is determined by other considerations as if they were not present. With the exception of *aber*, which may take other positions, they stand first in the clause; as, *wir sind beide noch jung, und das Leben ist lang* *we are both still young, and life is long*; *das ist lateinisch, oder ich las mich hängen that is Latin, or I'll be hanged*; *wir wollen dienen gehen, denn unser Vater kann uns nicht länger ernähren* *we will go out to service for our father can no longer keep us.*

1. If they join principal clauses, these conjunctions may be followed by either the normal (§ 629) or the inverted order (§ 630). If

by the latter, the inversion must now be due to one of the causes that would produce inversion if the conjunction were not present; as, *ich vergoß Tränen des Dankes, denn klar stand plötzlich meine Zukunft vor meiner Seele I shed tears of gratitude, for my future all at once stood clear before my soul; zieh' dich an, und dann komm mit dress yourself and then come along.* An old-fashioned inversion after *und* still lingers on, however, in official and commercial style and occasionally elsewhere; as, *Mama gefiel er sehr, und hat sie ihn gleich engagiert mama was much pleased with him, and she hired him at once.*

2. *Aber* is the common word for *but* and may stand either at the beginning of the clause or within it, being often best translated by *however* in the latter case; as, *aber was soll ich dir geben but what shall I give you? der Hase aber meinte the hare, however, thought.* An untranslatable *aber* still occurs occasionally after *oder*; as, *durch widersprüchliche Aufflamration oder aber durch schriftliche Abstimmung by (unanimous) acclamation or by ballot.* *Allein* occurs less frequently, but has about the same meaning as *aber*. *Sondern* can only be used after a negative to introduce an opposite statement; as, *ich bin nicht verantwortlich für meine Nachfolger, sondern nur für mich selbst I am not responsible for my successors but only for myself.*

3. *Denn*, meaning *for*, connects only principal clauses and stands first in its clause; meaning *then, therefore*, it must stand within the clause (§ 602).

4. For *either . . . or* German uses *entweder . . . oder*, with normal or inverted order after *entweder*; as, *entweder ihr verhaltet euch ruhig, oder ihr geht hinaus either you keep quiet or you go out.* Or the first clause might run *entweder verhaltet ihr euch ruhig.* In poetry *oder . . . oder* may occur instead of *entweder . . . oder*.

ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS

602. The adverbial conjunctions are all adverbs and are used freely as such. Their adverbial and conjunctive use cannot be sharply distinguished. The latter is the broader, as it shows the relation of one clause to another. If they stand at the beginning of the clause, these words regularly cause inversion of the verb, but they may also stand within the clause like other adverbs; thus, *vielmehr werden es nur recht bescheidene Beiträge sein they will be, rather, only very modest contributions; Sie dagegen tun das nicht you, on the*

contrary, do not do that; halb zog sie ihn, halb sank er hin she partly drew him, he partly sank down; sie ist frank, also kann sie nicht abreisen she is ill, therefore she cannot leave; es regnet, ich gehe also nicht aus it is raining, I shall therefore not go out.

1. Several of these conjunctions, especially *doch* and *jedoch*, often stand at the beginning of the clause without causing inversion; as, *doch unser Streit ist nun vorbei but our strife is now over*. *Nämlich* generally stands within the clause; if it comes first it does not cause inversion. Some of these conjunctions, especially *nun*, *ferner*, *enblieb*, and the ordinal adverbs *erstens*, *zweitens*, etc., often appear as the first word but set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma. They are then, in effect, independent elements and do not cause inversion; as, *nun, das ist recht schön well, that is very fine*. Formerly the comma was not necessarily used to indicate this separation in meaning from the rest of the sentence.

603. The following are among the commonest adverbial conjunctions: *also therefore, auch too, außerdem besides, dagegen on the contrary, daher therefore, dann then, darum therefore, dennoch nevertheless, deshalb therefore, dessehungeachtet notwithstanding, deswegen therefore, doch but, yet, endlich finally, ferne moreover, folglich consequently, freilich to be sure, gleichwohl nevertheless, hingegen on the contrary, indemmen nevertheless, jedoch nevertheless, mitbin consequently, nämlich namely, natürliech of course, noch nor, nun now, well, schließlich finally, so so, sonst else, trotzdem nevertheless, übrigens moreover, vielmehr rather, wohl probably, zwar to be sure*. To these may be added the ordinal adverbs *erstens*, *zweitens*, etc., and words in pairs, such as *bald . . . bald now . . . now, halb . . . halb half . . . half, sei es . . . sei es be it . . . be it, teils . . . teils partly . . . partly*.

1. The principal use of *so* as a coördinating conjunction is to introduce a principal clause following an adverbial clause, especially one of cause or condition. It is then often best omitted in English or translated by *then* or *therefore*; as, *wenn er geht, so sind wir ganz verlassen if he goes, we are utterly deserted*.

2. *Neither . . . nor* is regularly *neither . . . noch* but may be *noch . . . noch* in poetical style.

604. Classification of Adverbial Conjunctions. Adverbs of place and time, particularly the latter, may have conjunctive force; as, *darauf thereupon*, *unterdessen meanwhile*. The other adverbial conjunctions may be roughly classified as follows; 1. Copulative, with the general sense of *and*; as, *auch*, *außerdem*, *erstens*, *teils . . . teils*, *bald . . . bald*. 2. Adversative, with the general sense of *but*; as, *doch*, *dennoch*, *dagegen*, *vielmehr*. 3. Causative, expressing a cause or an inference; as, *daher*, *deswegen*, *folglich*, *mithin*.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

605. The subordinating conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses and are therefore regularly followed by the transposed order of words (§ 636), the verb coming at the end of the clause; as, *wenn Augen je gesleht haben, so slehten diese if eyes ever besought, these besought*; *warten Sie, bis ich angekleidet bin wait till I am dressed*; *er glaubt, daß er unrecht hat he believes that he is wrong*.

606. The subordinating conjunctions are numerous. Only a few of them are used exclusively as conjunctions. The following are some of the most important: *als when*, *as*, *bevor before*, *bis till*, *da as*, *since*, *damit (in order) that*, *daß that*, *ehe before*, *falls in case*, *indem while*, *indes (or indessen) while*, *je the*, *nachdem after*, *ob whether*, *seit(dem) since*, *während while*, *wann when*, *weil because*, *wenn when*, *if*, *weshalb wherefore*, *wie how*, *as*, *wo where*, *when*, *zumal especially*. In addition there are a number of compounds and conjunctive phrases, such as *als ob as if*, *als wenn as if*, *obgleich though*, *obschon though*, *obwohl though*, *wenngleich though*, *wenn . . . auch though*, *wenn . . . schon though*, *je nachdem according as*, *sobald as soon as*, *solang(e) as long as*. The compounds of *wo(r)*, less frequently those of *da(r)*, with prepositions and with adverbs of motion, such as *wodurch whereby*, *wohin whither*, may also act as subordinating conjunctions.

1. *Odgleich*, *obwohl*, *obſchon*, and *wenngleich* often undergo separation; as, *ob er's gleich nicht fordert, fühlt er's doch though he does not demand it, he feels it nevertheless.* Separation is the rule with *wenn... auch* and *wenn... schon*. *Ob* or *wenn* may then be omitted and the verb inverted. See § 608, 2.

2. *Je* has as its correlate in the principal clause *desto*, *um so*, or *je*, giving the meaning *the... the*; as, *je länger ich höre, desto klarer wird's mir the longer I listen, the clearer it becomes to me.*

3. *So* is compounded with a few other adverbs than *höchst* and *lang(e)*. *Als* sometimes accompanies compounds of *so*; thus, *sobald als*. Followed by an adjective or an adverb, occasionally even by a noun, and commonly with *auch* farther on in the clause, *so* has the general sense of *however*; as, *so unwürdig ich auch bin however unworthy I may be; so gut man wählt, kann man sich doch betrügen however well one chooses, one can nevertheless be deceived.* *So* still occurs occasionally in the formerly common sense of *if*; as, *vor Ende dieser Woche bin ich, so Gott will, bei euch before the end of this week, if God is willing, I shall be with you.*

4. *Wie* can also be used with adjectives, adverbs, or nouns, commonly with *auch* farther on in the clause, in the general sense of *however*; as, *wie reich er auch ist however rich he may be.*

5. *Auch* occurs with *wann* and *wo* in the sense of *ever*. For a similar use with relative pronouns see § 415.

607. English Conjunctive Phrases. In translating from German into English it should be remembered that phrases, such as *you know*, for example, often show the logical connection between sentences and may therefore be legitimate renderings for German conjunctions, especially for adverbial ones.

Omission of Conjunctions

608. Conjunctions must ordinarily be expressed, but the following omissions occur frequently:

1. *Daß* is often omitted after verbs of knowing, saying, thinking, seeming, and the like. The subordinate clause is then treated, so far as the order of words is concerned, as if it were a principal clause; as, *er antwortete, er habe keine Zeit gehabt he answered that he had had no time; ich glaub', er hat das Lachen verlernt I believe he has forgotten how to laugh.*

2. *Wenn* and *ob* are also often omitted. This occurs when

they would stand alone, if expressed, or in combination with *als* (*als wenn*, *als ob*), *gleich*, *wohl*, or *schon* (*obwohl*, *wenngleich*, etc.). The subordinate clause then takes the inverted order; as, *kannst du, so komme in die Loge if you can, come to the box*; *als ginge die Reise mindestens bis ans Ende der Welt as though the journey were at least to the end of the world*; *ist er gleich tot, so war er doch mein Freund though he is dead, he was nevertheless my friend*.

INTERJECTIONS

609. Interjections and other exclamatory words and phrases have essentially the same uses in German and English. They may be classified as follows:

1. Actual interjections, words used only in this office and expressing joy, sorrow, anger, fright, determination, and the like. Here may also be included imitations of the cries of animals and of other sounds, calls to animals, more or less meaningless words occurring in the refrains of songs, and the like; as, *ach ah*, *juchhe heigh-ho*, *pfui fie*, *burr whoa*, *plump bump*, *hopfsa heyday*, *tralala folderol*.

2. Other parts of speech used after the manner of interjections, including oaths and imprecations and often groups of words in excited speech; as, *weh woe!* (*Gott*) *bewahre God forbid!* *herein come in!* *donnerwetter confound it!* *mit eurem Gelde away with your money!* *ih dich ehren I honor you!*

610. Interjections are often associated with nouns or their equivalents to make an exclamatory phrase. The accompanying words are generally in the nominative, but may be in the genitive, less frequently in the dative, and rarely in the accusative, or they may depend on a preposition; as, *o der Tor oh, the fool!* *o des groben Irrtums oh, the gross error!* *weh mir woe is me!* *pfui über dich fie upon thee!* An interjection may be followed by a subordinate clause; as, *ach, daß du kalt oder warm wärest I would thou wert hot or cold.*

THE SENTENCE

611. The classification of sentences is the same in English and German. In general, what may be said about the English sentence applies also to the German, and so only a few topics are discussed below.

SUBJECT

612. The subject is a noun in the nominative or anything that can be used as a noun, such as a pronoun, a substantive adjective, an infinitive, any part of speech used substantively, or a whole clause; as, *der König kam* *the king came*; *ich weiß es* *I know it*; *der Älteste antwortete* *the oldest answered*; *seinen Feinden verzeihen ist edel* *to pardon one's enemies is noble*; *dass er noch lebt, ist gewiss* *that he still lives is certain*.

1. A partitive genitive or a phrase with *von* is occasionally the subject; as, *soldier Stellen waren überall* *such spots were everywhere*; *gestern gingen von seinen Leuten vorbei* *yesterday some of his men went by*. This construction was not uncommon formerly. See § 448, 2.

613. Formal and Logical Subject. *Es* is often used as an introductory (formal) subject, the real (logical) subject following the verb. This corresponds to the use of the expletive *there* in English, as in *there were many children present*, but *es* is more widely employed than *there*, frequently occurring where the latter would be impossible. *Es* also often acts as the formal subject in anticipation of an infinitive or subordinate clause which is the logical subject. Illustrations of both uses are: *es entsteht ein Streit* *there arises a controversy*; *es lächelt der See* *the lake smiles*; *es klopft jemand an die Tür* *somebody is knocking at the door*; *es ist kein Wunder*, *dass ihr denkt zu träumen* *it is no wonder that you think you are dreaming*; *es ist so elend Betteln zu müssen* *it is so wretched to have to beg*.

1. In impersonal constructions the logical subject may be in an oblique case or occur in a prepositional phrase. Thus, *Schützen* and *Geld*

are the logical subjects in the sentences, *nicht grauet dem Schützen auf schwindligtem Weg* *the hunter feels no horror on his dizzy way*; *es fehlt immer an Geld* *money is always lacking*. The formal subject may be expressed by *es* or omitted.

614. Omission of Subject. The imperative regularly appears without a subject (§ 553). Elsewhere the presence of the subject is the rule. The omission of the first person is, however, not uncommon in business or terse colloquial style. The second person is dropped less frequently and the third person least of all. Thus, *neugierig, ihn zu sehen, soll ganz unserem Großvater gleichen* *I am curious to see him, he is said to be exactly like our grandfather*; *würde dich nicht erkannt haben, liebe Cousine*; *hast wenig von dem Familiengesicht* *I should not have recognized you, dear cousin; you have little of the family look*. *Ich* is also omitted in a few set expressions, such as *bitte please, danke thanks*.

1. The omission or retention of the grammatical subject *es* depends mostly on the position of the real subject. If the latter precedes the verb, *es* is commonly omitted. When *es* is the real subject, its omission is unusual.

615. Insertion of Subject. When two or more verbs in the same construction have the same subject, it ordinarily accompanies the first of them only, but it, or a pronoun representing it, may be repeated with each of the other verbs. This is the practice in English. Thus, *der Bauer nahm den Ring, stellte ihn an den Finger und begab sich auf den Heimweg* *the peasant took the ring, put it on his finger, and started on his way home*; *ich habe ein Kind gehabt, und ich weiß nicht, wo sie gestorben ist* *I had a child, and I do not know where she died*. German regularly inserts a subject, however, if the relative position of one of the following verbs is changed by the introduction of an adverb, an object, or the like; thus, *er war ein eifriger Weidmann, und mir hat er viel Gutes erwiesen* *he was a zealous hunter and showed me much kind-*

ness; am dritten Tage erhielt der Fremde sein Geld, und dann verließ er die Stadt *on the third day the stranger received his money and then left the town.* See also under word-order, § 633, 2.

1. German often inserts a subject, predicate, or object in a subordinate clause in a manner contrary to English usage; as, indeß ging der Amtsrat etwas rascher, als es seine Gewohnheit war *meanwhile the judge went somewhat faster than was his custom.*

OMISSION OF VERB

616. The circumstances under which the verb can be omitted are generally the same in German and English. German, however, often omits the simple tenses of *sein* from the predicate; as, *ich staune, daß dir alles fremd* *I am astonished that all is strange to you.* Another notable variation from English usage is the dropping of *haben* or *sein* of compound tenses in subordinate clauses; as, *tu, was ich dir besohlen do what I have commanded you;* *sie ist gestorben, eh' das Glück gekommen* *she died before happiness came.* The infinitive or past participle of a verb of motion is also often omitted if the direction of the motion is shown by an adverb or a prepositional phrase; as, *wenn der Zug in die Kirche hinein ist when the procession has entered the church;* *aber ich muß heim but I must go home;* *drum will ich ins Freie therefore I want to go outdoors.*

NEGATIVES

617. Not only *nicht*, but also *fein*, *niemand*, *nie*, *niemals*, etc., are to be counted among the negatives. Other words and phrases, such as *Hener*, *Teufel*, (*Gott*) *behüte* or *bewahre*, may be, in effect, strong negatives; as, *den Teufel habt ihr the devil you have* (that is, *you have not*).

618. Double negatives still occur, as in English, in the speech of the uneducated and were not uncommon, as survivals from former usage, in older literature; as, *da können*

wir keinen Bescheid nicht geben *we can't give no information about that*; keine Lust von keiner Seite *no breeze from any side*.

619. Pleonastic Negative. An unnecessary negative, frequent in older literature, is still found occasionally in subordinate clauses after words of hindering, forbidding, doubting, etc., also after comparatives, after *ohne daß* and some temporal conjunctions if the principal clause is negative, and in some other relations; as, *du hast dich recht verändert, seit ich dich nicht gesehen* *you have changed very much since I (last) saw you*; *leichter wäre sie dir zu entbehren, als sie es jenem guten Mann nicht ist* *it would be easier for you to do without it than for that good man*; *ich zweifle kaum, daß sie nicht am Ende alles gestehen werde* *I hardly doubt that she will finally confess all*.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

620. Independent elements are independent in the sense that they stand outside of the framework of the sentence, but they may be closely connected in meaning with the sentence which they accompany. Such elements are nouns and pronouns in the nominative (vocative) of direct address (§ 433), the nominative (§ 434) and accusative absolute (§ 471), the infinitive (§ 573) and the present (§ 583, 5) and past (§ 586, 7) participles in absolute constructions, and interjections (§ 609). Appositive elements stand between the ordinary subordinate and the independent elements, being less closely related to the structure of the sentence than the former, and more closely than the latter. For apposition see § 473.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

621. Subordinate clauses are commonly classified as substantive, adjective, and adverbial, in accordance with the parts of speech which they represent.

622. Substantive (or noun) clauses have the force of a noun and may be subdivided as follows:

1. Subject clauses, which serve as the subject of a verb; thus, *dass er noch lebt, ist gewiss that he still lives is certain*; *ob eure Früchte reifen, steht bei Gott whether your fruits ripen is in God's hands*; *wer nicht erlag, entfloß whoever did not succumb fled*; *was nie auf dem Schlachtfeld erhört war, geschah hier what had never been heard of on a battlefield happened here*.

(a) A subject clause introduced by a conjunction, especially by *dass*, frequently stands in nominal apposition with a neuter pronoun, most often *es*, which acts as the formal subject of the principal clause; as, *es ist gut, dass ihr das Griechische angefangen habt it is good that you have begun Greek*. In a similar way, *der* and *dass* in the principal clause may represent *wer* and *was* in the subordinate clause; as, *wer dir es jetzt gesagt hat, der wird nichts Böses damit gemeint haben whoever said it to you just now, (he) surely meant nothing bad by it*.

2. Predicate clauses, which are rather infrequent and represent the predicate noun; as, *du bist nicht, der du scheinst you are not the person that you seem to be*; *was ich gewesen, werd' ich wieder what I have been I shall be again*. The clause may also be in nominal apposition with a pronoun.

3. Object clauses, which represent the near or remote objects of verbs; as, *der Arzt hilft, wem er helfen kann the physician helps whom he can (help)*; *ich glaub', er hat das Lachen verlernt I believe he has forgotten how to laugh*; *ich weiß nicht ob er mich kennt I do not know whether he knows me*.

(a) Nominal apposition with a pronoun occurs frequently, as explained with subject clauses; thus, *ob ich weislich gehandelt, ich weiß es nicht I do not know whether I have acted wisely*; *wem nicht zu raten ist, dem ist auch nicht zu helfen who will not be advised cannot be helped either*.

4. Appositive clauses, explaining a noun or the equivalent of a noun; as, *sie hatten nur die einzige Besorgnis, dass der König ihnen entrinnen möchte they had only the one fear, that the king might escape them*; *die Hoffnung, dass sie den Sieg davon tragen würden the hope that they would win the victory*. If the clause represents a prepositional phrase, it regularly appears in

apposition with a compound of *da(r)* and a preposition; as, *dass diese weder treulos noch betört, darauf hätt' ich geschworen* *that these are neither faithless nor deluded, I would have taken my oath to that.* For subject, predicate, and object clauses in nominal apposition with a neuter pronoun see above.

5. With a preposition; as, *der Tag verging, ohne dass Regine wiederkehrte* *the day passed without Regina's returning;* *außer dass man Flügel haben möchte* *except that one would like to have wings.* Only a few prepositions can thus govern a clause.

623. Adjective clauses modify a noun or the equivalent of a noun. They are commonly introduced by a relative pronoun or a relative adverb, alone or in compound, but may be introduced by a conjunction; as, *ein Mensch, der nie mit sich selbst zufrieden ist* *a person who is never satisfied with himself;* *seit dem Tage, wo der fremde Arzt zu deinem Vater kam* *since the day when the strange physician came to your father;* *das alte Geld und die Ketten meiner seligen Mutter, wovon noch nichts verläuft* *ist the old coins and the chains of my deceased mother, of which nothing has yet been sold;* *die Art, wie er sich benimmt, gefällt mir nicht* *the way in which he behaves does not please me.*

624. Adverbial clauses commonly modify a verb, but may modify an adjective or adverb. They are introduced by a number of different conjunctions and may be roughly divided into the following classes, as in English: 1. Time: *als sich der Sturm gelegt hatte, sang der Graf an* *when the storm had ceased, the count began.* 2. Place: *ich fand ihn, wo ich ihn suchte* *I found him where I looked for him.* 3. Comparison or degree: *jetzt sind wir genau so arm, wie vor zwanzig Jahren* *now are we exactly as poor as twenty years ago;* *je länger ich höre, desto klarer wird's mir* *the longer I listen the clearer it becomes to me.* 4. Result or consecutive clauses: *und er stieß einen gellenden Pfiff aus, so dass die fröhle Frau im Bett emporfuhr* *and he gave a shrill whistle so that the sick woman started*

up in her bed; die Unternehmungen meines Busens sind zu groß, als daß du ihnen im Wege stehen solltest the enterprises of my bosom are too great for you to stand in their way. 5. Cause or reason: jetzt sterb' ich, weil ich sprach now I die because I spoke. 6. Purpose or final clauses: denn das sag' ich euch, damit ihr's wisset for I tell you that that you may know it. 7. Condition: wenn Augen je gesleht haben, so slehten diese if eyes ever begged, these begged. See also § 535. 8. Concession: ob er's gleich nicht fordert, fühlt er's doch though he does not demand it, he feels it nevertheless.

Order of Words

625. In the following statement of the rules for word-order the subject is understood to be the subject word with all its modifiers, so far as they stand in immediate connection with it. Thus, in the sentences die Beute der Preußen war sehr groß and ein junger Bauer, mit dem es in der Wirtschaft nicht recht vorwärts gehen wollte, saß auf seinem Pfluge, the subjects are the words die to Preußen, and ein to wollte, inclusive.

626. The term *personal verb* is here understood to mean the part of the verb form inflected for person and number. In simple tenses this is the verb itself; in compound tenses it is the auxiliary; as, du gehst, ihr habt gelobt, er ist gefangen, sie wird kommen, wir werden gesehen.

627. The general connectives (§ 601) have no effect on the word-order, but the adverbial (§ 602) and subordinating (§ 605) conjunctions and all other connectives, such as relative pronouns and adverbs and compounds of da(r) and wo(r) with prepositions, should be carefully noticed for their effect on the position of the personal verb.

POSITION OF SUBJECT AND PERSONAL VERB IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES

628. In principal clauses we distinguish between the *normal* and the *inverted* order. These terms are usual and

convenient, but it should not be thought that the so-called normal order is more natural or regular than the inverted.

629. Normal Order. The personal verb follows the subject; as, *du hast mich erlöst you have freed me*; *die Beute der Preußen war sehr groß the booty of the Prussians was very great*; *ich will's dem Vater sagen I will tell it to father*; *ich habe dich leben lassen I have let you live*; *das geht dich nicht an that does not concern you*; *sie waren beide vom Gutsherrn eingeladen worden they had both been invited by the squire*.

1. Separable prefixes, participles and infinitives in compound tenses and in the passive, and infinitives dependent on the modal auxiliaries or *lassen* are regularly carried over to the end of the clause, as illustrated in the German sentences above. For the position of other elements of the sentence see §§ 640–657.

2. English may insert another element between the subject and the verb of the principal clause; as, *I often went*. This is generally improper in German, the regular construction being *ich ging oft* or, with inversion, *oft ging ich*. Rather frequent exceptions occur with *aber* (§ 601, 2), *ledoch*, *also*, *nämlich* (§ 602, 1), and a few other words of the same general character; as, *er aber weinte but he wept*.

(a) Adverbs and prepositional phrases modifying the subject word can, of course, precede the personal verb; as, *die zu Hause ist meine Stiefmutter the one at home is my stepmother*.

630. Inverted Order. The personal verb precedes the subject; as, *so verging Jahr um Jahr thus year after year passed*; *siehst du den großen Baum da do you see the big tree there*? *einen Schulmeister hatten wir we had a schoolmaster*; *darauf lief der Hund mit der Prinzessin zurück then the dog ran back with the princess*; *taum hatte er dies ausgesprochen scarcely had he said this*.

1. Unless they stand first and cause the inversion, separable prefixes, participles and infinitives in compound tenses and in the passive, and infinitives dependent on the modal auxiliaries or *lassen* are regularly carried over to the end of the clause, as illustrated with the normal order and in the sentences above. For the position of other elements of the sentence see §§ 640–657.

631. Causes of Inversion. Inversion results if any element except the subject (and, of course, except the general connectives) is placed first. The personal verb or any other element, including a subordinate clause, may be given the first place, either because it is emphatic or because it is the natural starting point with reference to a preceding sentence or in the mind of the speaker.

632. The inverted order is therefore found in questions (except when the subject is an interrogative pronoun), in commands, wishes, and exhortations, in sentences introduced by the expletive *es*, and often in exclamatory sentences; as, *liebt eine Mutter ihr Kind nicht does not a mother love her child?* *machen wir ein Ende let us come to an end;* *es kostet nun das fremde Holz am meisten foreign wood now costs the most;* *war ich ein Dummkopf I was a blockhead!*

1. Occasionally a question is shown by the tone of the voice, though the words are in the normal order; as, *ihr seid ein Maler your are a painter?* The normal order is not uncommon in the third person of the subjunctive of wishing and of the imperative subjunctive, and may occur in other persons; as, *Gott geb' dir Heilung God grant you healing!*

2. *Doch* is often inserted for emphasis in exclamatory sentences; as, *war doch sein kleines Herz von ganz derselben Sehnsucht erfüllt was his little heart not filled with the very same yearning!* *hab' ich den Markt und die Straßen doch nie so einsam gesehen really, I have never seen the streets and the market so deserted.* Exclamatory sentences may also have the transposed order; see § 639.

3. Inversion without *es* occurs frequently in poetry and occasionally in prose; as, *waren einst vier schlimme Brüder there were once four bad brothers.*

633. Inversion due to any Element. Declarative sentences take the inverted order if any subordinate element stands first. These elements are: (a) An adverbial conjunction; as, *deswegen werde ich sie nicht mehr erwarten consequently I shall no longer look for her.* (b) An object, direct or indirect; as, *den Hut nahm er ab he took off his hat.* (c) An

adverbial modifier, such as a simple adverb, an adverbial accusative, or a prepositional phrase; as, lange dauerte dieser neue Kampf *this new struggle lasted long*; mit dir geh' ich nicht *I'll not go with you*. (d) A predicate adjective, noun, or pronoun; as, hübsch fand sie nicht *they are not pretty*. (e) The rest of the verb form, including the separable prefix; as, ein stürzt der Feind *the enemy rushes in*; und schützen soll sie dieses tapfere Schwert *and this valiant sword shall protect her*. (f) An appositive or absolute construction; as, von Erlen gedeckt, konnte er sie früher sehen, als sie ihn concealed by elders, *he could see her sooner than she him*. (g) An infinitive; as, anstatt zu lachen, weinte er instead of laughing he wept. For inversion due to a subordinate clause see § 634.

1. As a rule, only one element can thus stand first, though it may consist of a number of words; as, von heute auf morgen, oder wenn es hochkommt, von heute bis über's Jahr, hat man sich besonnen between to-day and to-morrow, or in a year from to-day at most, one will have changed his mind. But such a combination as at ten o'clock in the morning at the front door of the courthouse consists of two elements, only one of which could ordinarily stand at the beginning of a German sentence, the other following the personal verb.

2. As only one cause for inversion is allowed, as a rule, modifiers of a second or later verb with the same subject regularly follow their verb, or a new subject is inserted; as, am dritten Tage erhielt der Fremde sein Geld und verließ dann die Stadt (*on the third day the stranger received his money and then left the city*) or, with inserted subject, am dritten Tage erhielt der Fremde sein Geld, und dann verließ er die Stadt.

3. Commonly only the first of two or more clauses joined by a general connective will be inverted by an element at the beginning of the sentence. The other clauses will ordinarily have the normal order or introduce a new reason for inversion; as, da plang eine Glöde, und das Lachen verstummte then a bell sounded and the laughter ceased. Questions regularly keep the inverted order, however, and sometimes other clauses.

4. An adverb modifying the subject can stand first without causing inversion; as, nicht jeder Leser hätte an seiner Stelle sein mögen *not every reader (of my book) would have liked to be in his place*. Several of the adverbial conjunctions, especially doch and jedoch, often precede the subject without causing inversion, and some others, particularly nun,

ferner, *endlich*, and the ordinal adverbs *ersten*, *zweiten*, etc., can also stand first in the clause without resulting inversion if they are cut off from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

634. Inversion due to a Subordinate Clause. If the subordinate precedes the principal clause, the latter is regularly inverted and is then often introduced by *da*, *so*, or a similar word; as, *als sich der Sturm gelegt hatte, fing der Graf an when the storm had ceased, the count began;* *wenn Sie in Jena sind, so sind wir nahe bei einander when you are in Jena, we shall be near together.* Or if the principal clause is inserted within the subordinate, inversion results; as, „*Guter Mann,*“ *rief er, „ich hätte nicht so viele Worte machen sollen“ “My good man,” he cried, “I ought not to have talked so much!”*

i. If the introductory particle is omitted, the principal clause is occasionally not inverted; as, *wenn unser Richard stirbt, du hast ihn gemordet if our Richard dies, you will have murdered him.*

635. Position of Subject in Inverted Order. The subject of an inverted clause usually comes directly after the personal verb, as illustrated above. But an unimportant word, commonly a pronoun as direct or indirect object, may precede it, or the subject may be carried over to the end of the sentence to make it emphatic (§ 641, 2), to bring it nearer to a dependent adjective clause (§ 656), or for some other reason.

POSITION OF SUBJECT AND PERSONAL VERB IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

636. Transposed Order. The personal verb regularly stands last in the subordinate clause. This arrangement of words is called the *transposed*, or *dependent*, order; as, *wer Hand an ihn legt, kommt selber in Verhaft whoever lays hand on him will himself be arrested;* *wie kommt es, daß ihr einander so fremd geworden seid how does it come that you have become such strangers to each other?* *als die Tür sich hinter dem Jungen geschlossen hatte, wiederholte die Hausfrau ihre Frage*

when the door had closed behind the boy, the housewife repeated her question. The other elements, except the subject and the personal verb, generally have the same position as in the normal or inverted order.

1. But an auxiliary with two infinitives regularly precedes them both; as, *viel besser, als sie es hätten tun können much better than they could have done it.* In freer construction the auxiliary sometimes precedes an infinitive and a participle in the active, or both participles in the passive voice; as, *da ich voraussah, daß der Herr Major es selbst gutwillig würde geräumt haben since I foresaw that the major himself would have willingly vacated it.*

2. An auxiliary with two or more verbs or two or more clauses joined by general connectives regularly stands at the end, in the transposed order, as does also a verb with two or more coördinate modifiers; as, *das Schicksal der Stadt ruhte darauf, daß der Damm durchschleift oder durchstochen wurde the fate of the city depended on the dike's being leveled or pierced;* *sie fragte, wo ich ihn getroffen und ob ich mit ihm gesprochen hätte she asked where I had encountered him and whether I had spoken with him;* *die wilden Gänse sind schwer zu schießen, weil sie schnell und sehr hoch fliegen wild geese are hard to shoot because they fly swiftly and very high.*

3. When two or more subordinate clauses are introduced by one connective; they should all take the transposed order, but the rule may be violated in familiar speech; as, *daß ist nicht recht, Vater, daß ihr reitet und laßt euren Sohn laufen it is not right, father, that you ride and let your son go on foot.* The usual order would be *und euren Sohn laßt.*

637. Position of Subject in Transposed Order. The subject of a subordinate clause regularly stands immediately after the connective, but may be preceded by an unemphatic word, commonly a pronoun as direct or indirect object. If the connective is part of a phrase, as is often true of the relative pronoun, the whole phrase precedes the subject; as, *der Turm, auf dessen Spitze Sie eine Fahne sehen the tower on top of which you see a flag.* A relative pronoun may, of

course, be at the same time connective and subject; as, *ein Baum, welcher keine Früchte trägt* *a tree that bears no fruit.*

638. Omission of Connective. The relative pronoun cannot be omitted in German. Certain conjunctions are, however, often omitted, and the rules for the transposed order do not then apply. For details see § 608.

639. Exclamatory sentences often have the transposed order, even if not introduced by a subordinating conjunction; as, *wie du aussiehst how you do look!* *wer dich so fände if any one should find you doing this!* *darf ich ihm die Zähne nicht austreten soll what a pity that I can't kick his teeth out!* For the inverted order in such sentences see § 632.

POSITION OF OTHER ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE

640. The elements of the sentence, except the subject and the personal verb, usually have the same position in either principal or subordinate clauses. They are as follows:

Modifiers of the Verb

641. The modifiers of the verb are arranged in accordance with the two following principles:

1. In general, any modifier of the verb of a principal clause can be made prominent by being put first. For illustrations see § 633. This principle applies to subordinate clauses only when the conjunction *darf* is omitted. See § 608, 1.

(a) The desire to make an element emphatic is not the only reason for putting it first. It may take this position because it naturally connects with what has been said before, or because it represents what is uppermost in the mind of the speaker, or for the sake of clearness, variety, or euphony. The first position is therefore important but not necessarily more emphatic than one farther on in the sentence.

2. Otherwise the position of the modifiers of the verb is generally the same in both principal and subordinate clauses. They stand within their clause and are arranged in the re-

verse order of their importance, the less important coming earlier, the more important later. Emphasis can therefore be given to a word or phrase by moving it from its usual position and bringing it nearer the end of the clause. The following statement of the position of the modifiers of the verb is only a more detailed illustration of the operation of this second principle.

642. Objects. The objects usually stand before the other modifiers of the verb. Pronoun objects precede noun objects; as, *ich gebe dir mein Pferd I give you my horse*; *ich will's dem Vater sagen I will tell it to father*; *wenn man ihn der Freiheit ganz beraubt if he is entirely deprived of his freedom*.

1. Of two or more pronoun objects, the accusative usually precedes the dative or the genitive, but a long pronoun, such as *dieser* or *derselbe*, follows a short one without regard to case. On the other hand, *es* is often shortened to '*s*' and placed after another pronoun. In the inverted or transposed order a personal or reflexive pronoun often precedes the subject. Thus, *ich habe es dir gesagt I have said it to you*; *verzeihe mir's forgive me for it*; *erbarme Gott sich deiner God have pity on you*; *man nimmt uns alles they take everything from us*; *der Dürftige soll sich derselben erfreuen the needy shall rejoice in them*; *da zeigte ihm der Bauer seinen Ring then the peasant showed him his ring*. But a relative pronoun, even if it is the object, must stand at the beginning of its clause.

2. The order of noun objects is usually dative, accusative, genitive, but a noun object denoting a person usually precedes one denoting a thing, without regard to case; as, *bevor du deinem Eindruck Worte leihst before you lend words to your impression*; *wozu soll man einem Lügner die Wahrheit sagen why should one tell the truth to a liar?* *er beschuldigte seinen Diener der Untreue he accused his servant of unfaithfulness*; *sie haben den armen Mann seinem Schicksal überlassen they have left the poor man to his fate*.

643. Adverbs. Adverbs usually follow objects, but one of time often precedes a noun object, and others may do so. Among adverbs the order of occurrence is ordinarily time, place, manner, quantity, but there are frequent exceptions, due to the relative importance of the words concerned. Thus, *du wohnst hier sehr bequem* *you live here very comfortably*; *er arbeitete immer fleißig* *he always worked industriously*; *ich habe gestern meinen alten Vater besucht* *I visited my aged father yesterday*; *der Bauer drehte den Ring täglich wohl zwanzigmal am Finger um* *the peasant twisted the ring on his finger perhaps twenty times a day*.

644. Adverbial and Prepositional Phrases. Adverbial genitives and accusatives and prepositional phrases commonly follow simple adverbs. They are not necessarily emphatic, but their length naturally gives them an important position. If several of such phrases occur in the same sentence, they are arranged in the reverse order of their importance; as, *wir speisen gewöhnlich um sechs Uhr* *we dine generally at six o'clock*; *sie gingen lange in einem finsternen Gange hin* *they walked for a long while in a dark passage*; *da du stets so viel wichtiger Dinge im Kopf gehabt hast* *since you have always had so much more important things in mind*; *er saß am liebsten auf dem Stuhle neben ihr* *he liked best to sit in the chair next to her*; *hier liegt sie nun sechs endlose Wochen lang* *here she has been lying for six endless weeks*.

645. Negative Adverbs. *Nicht*, *nie*, *niemals*, and similar negative adverbs commonly follow all the other adverbial modifiers of the verb, owing to their great importance in the sentence; as, *Näheres kann man von ihr nicht erfahren* *one cannot learn the details from her*; *ich habe meinen Freund lange nicht gesehen* *I have not seen my friend for a long time*.

1. This rule applies only to a negative modifying the sentence as a whole. If the negative modifies any part of the sentence, as is perhaps most often the case, it precedes that part; thus, *nicht gerne verschen!* *ich*

die abgetragene Leinwand *I do not like to give away the worn-out linen*;
nicht jenen werd' ich's offenbaren *I shall not reveal it to those*.

646. Predicate Adjectives or Nouns. These regularly follow adverbial modifiers; as, *Rautendelein wird für einen Augenblick sichtbar* *Rautendelein is visible for a moment*; *seien Sie mir nicht gram* *do not be angry with me*; *ich bin ein ganzes Jahr frank gewesen* *I was ill for a whole year*; *wir waren immer Freunde* *we were always friends*.

647. The position of the separable prefix and of the remainder of the verb in compound tenses has been illustrated in connection with each of the orders. The separable prefix is, in effect, an emphatic adverbial modifier which has now taken a fixed position in the sentence.

Modifiers of the Noun

648. 1. Articles, pronominals, and adjectives, including participles used adjectively, precede their noun; as, *das arme Mädchen* *the poor girl*; *unter diesem und jenem Vorwande* *on this or that pretext*. Though occasionally found in prose, the position of an adjective after its noun is poetical. See § 323.

2. A dependent genitive or prepositional phrase regularly follows its noun; as, *ein Gefühl des Stolzes* *a feeling of pride*; *der größte Teil der Fürsten* *the majority of the princes*; *ein Glockenspiel aus edelstem Metall* *a chime of bells of the finest metal*; *ein alter Onkel von mir* *an old uncle of mine*. But even in prose the genitive, especially of proper names, not infrequently precedes its noun, while poetry allows a free arrangement. See § 439.

3. Adverbs generally follow the words they limit, but a few precede, as in English; thus, *dieser Vorhang hier* *this curtain here*; *nicht jeder Leser* *not every reader*.

4. An appositive generally follows its noun, but occasionally precedes. For illustrations see under the subject of apposition, § 473. For an appositive as the cause of inversion see § 633. A dependent infinitive follows its noun. See § 652, 3.

Modifiers of Adjectives, Participles, and Adverbs

649. Modifiers of adjectives, participles, and adverbs precede the word modified, as; *sehr schön* *very beautiful*; *recht bald* *very soon*; *halb erzürnt* *half angered*; *des Thrones verlustig* *deprived of the throne*; *dir gleich* *like you*. But a dependent noun or pronoun may follow, and a dependent prepositional phrase usually does follow, a predicate or appositive adjective; as, *reich an Besitztum* *rich in possessions*. On the other hand, all the modifiers precede an adjective or a participle which stands before its noun; as, *ein etwas kostspieliges, nur für wohlgespickte Börsen ausführbares Unterhaltungsspiel* *a somewhat expensive amusement, feasible only for well-lined purses*. A dependent infinitive follows its adjective. See § 652, 3.

SUMMARIES

650. Omitting minor matters found above, the following summaries give the position of the important elements in each of the orders:

1. **Normal Order.** *Subject, Personal Verb, 1. Objects, 2. Simple adverbs, 3. Adverbial and prepositional phrases, 4. Negative adverbs, 5. Predicate adjective or noun, 6. Separable prefix, 7. Remainder of verb form in compound tenses.*

2. **Inverted Order.** Inverting element (if any), *Personal Verb, Subject, the other elements as in the normal order.*

3. **Transposed Order.** Connective (if different from the subject), *Subject, the other elements as in the normal order, Personal Verb.*

INFINITIVES

651. Modifiers. The modifiers of an infinitive regularly precede it; as, *nun hast du weiter nichts zu tun, als dich hier unten in die Furche zu stellen* *you have nothing further to do now than to place yourself down here in the furrow*; *einen Verlorenen zu beweinen, ist auch männlich* *to weep for a lost one is manly too*.

652. Position. The place of the infinitive when part of a compound tense or dependent on a modal auxiliary has

already been illustrated. The substantive infinitive has the place that a noun would have in the same construction. The infinitive, with or without *zu*, used as the subject takes the position of the subject. The place of the infinitive in other constructions is as follows:

1. The infinitive without *zu* dependent on verbs takes the same position as an infinitive dependent on a modal auxiliary; thus, *er hörte seine frische Stimme durchs Haus schallen* *he heard his clear voice sound through the house*; *wer hat ihn von Tapferkeit jemals reden hören* *who has ever heard him talk of courage?*

2. The infinitive with *zu* dependent on a verb stands generally outside the framework of its clause. Unless the infinitive phrase is short, it is cut off from the rest of the clause by a comma. Thus, *alles war erquidt, mich zu erquicken* *everything was refreshed to refresh me*; *es ist kein Wunder, daß ihr denkt zu träumen* *it is no wonder that you think you are dreaming*; *ich versuchte es ihm auszureden* *I tried to dissuade him from it*. But if the infinitive phrase is short, it may stand within its clause; as, *ich fing bitterlich zu weinen an* *I began to weep bitterly*.

3. The infinitive with *zu* dependent on a noun or an adjective regularly follows the word which it modifies; other words may intervene. Thus, *die Hoffnung, Sie hier zu sehen* *the hope of seeing you here*; *dieser Brief ist schwer zu lesen* *this letter is hard to read*; *er ging mit dem Gedanken um, Torf darin zu stechen* *he contemplated cutting peat there*.

4. The infinitive, with or without *zu*, in real or nominal apposition regularly follows whatever it explains. For illustrations see § 572.

POSITION OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

653. A subordinate clause generally precedes or follows the principal clause on which it depends. The former of

these two positions is perhaps the commoner. A position within the principal clause is also not uncommon with certain kinds of clauses, as will be explained below. Whatever its position, the subordinate clause is invariably set off by a comma or commas.

654. Subject and object clauses commonly take a position in agreement with their office. Most often the subject clause precedes and the object clause follows the rest of the principal clause. For illustrations see § 622, 1 and 3. They may, however, reverse these positions. They stand comparatively rarely within the principal clause; as, *so aber mag ihn, wem er mundet, trinken in this condition whoever relishes it may drink it.*

655. Predicate clauses regularly follow all the other modifiers of the main verb, but they may stand first and cause inversion. For illustrations see § 622, 2.

656. Adjective clauses generally stand next to the word on which they depend and are therefore often within the principal clause. They also often take a position after the principal clause, as follows: 1. The word on which the clause depends may be moved from its usual position and carried over to the end of its clause; as, *ich will nichts voraushaben vor denen, die es sich sauer werden lassen* *I wish to have no advantage over those who work hard;* *da waren mein die Waren, die Sie retteten* *then the wares which you saved were mine.* 2. Oftener one word or more is allowed to stand between the governing word and the dependent clause; as, *sie tat einige Fragen an ihn, die er kurz beantwortete* *she asked him a few questions which he answered briefly;* *er setzte Dinge aufs Spiel, die jeden andern hätten zögern machen* *he ventured things which would have made any one else hesitate.*

657. Adverbial clauses generally precede or follow the principal clause. For illustrations see § 624. If such a clause modifies some word rather than the whole of the

sentence, it can, of course, stand within the principal clause; as, *jetzt, da er ein alter Mann ist, will's ihm immer noch nicht besser gehen now that he is an old man things still go no better with him.* An adverbial clause modifying the whole of a sentence occasionally stands within the principal clause, but it then takes such a position as would be given to a simple adverb. Therefore such an arrangement as is found in the sentence *we, after we had heard his story, complied with his request,* seems unnatural in German.

658. Only comparatively simple sentences, involving the relations of one principal and one subordinate clause, have been considered above. The more complicated sentence, in which several principal or subordinate clauses appear or in which subordinate clauses modify other subordinate clauses, does not come within the scope of the grammar.

659. The rules for word-order given above are intended to represent the common practice in careful contemporary prose. Poetry has always allowed itself many liberties. Older prose also presents many exceptions, for much that has now hardened into a rule was formerly only a tendency. The desire to be clear or emphatic or to give a better balance to the sentence likewise causes many deviations from these rules in good modern prose. Nevertheless they do represent the general practice of to-day and should be carefully observed by the foreigner who attempts to write and speak German. No one can appreciate the niceties of German style who is not well schooled and grounded in the principles which determine everyday usage.

PART III

FORMATION OF WORDS, RELATION OF GERMAN TO ENGLISH, BRIEF HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE

FORMATION OF WORDS

660. Some acquaintance with the manner in which German words are formed is necessary, as the language has built itself out of itself with far fewer additions from other languages than is the case with English. The discussion of the subject here is unavoidably very elementary, as it must be confined to modern German, without reference to the older periods of the language or to allied languages.

661. The *root* is the monosyllabic basis from which words are derived by changes in the root itself or by the addition of prefixes and suffixes. Words that show no marks of derivation so far as German alone is concerned are considered primitive or root words here, though the testimony of allied languages may prove them to be derivative.

DERIVATION OF WORDS

662. Derivation by suffix is the commonest method in German. For the sake of greater clearness the three methods of derivation (change in the root, suffix, prefix) are treated separately below, but it should not be forgotten that two or even all three of these processes may have helped to form a word.

663. The prefixes and suffixes, according to the generally accepted theory, were once independent words, and some of them have, in fact, existed as such within historic times. (For a suffix in the making see § 673, 12). They originally made compounds, but they gradually lost their separate meaning through frequent use in this office and became, in more or less mutilated form, mere prefixes and suffixes. According to the same theory the endings of inflection were also once independent

words that, by a similar process, sank to mere terminations. Their use is different, however. They are added or dropped as the syntactical construction demands, while the prefixes and suffixes of derivation remain as necessary parts of the new words. A sharp distinction is therefore made between inflection and derivation.

DERIVATION OF VERBS

664. Primitive Verbs. We may regard as primitive nearly all strong verbs, and weak verbs which were originally strong; as, *walten rule*. To these may be added a few other weak verbs that show no marks of derivation in any known period of the language; as, *haben have* and *leben live*.

665. Derivation by Addition of Infinitive Ending. This is a convenient way of explaining the process from the point of view of the modern language. Originally, however, the suffix *i(j)*, *ā*, or *ē*, was put between stem and ending, as is shown by the former weak infinitive endings *jan*, *ān*, and *ēn*. These three endings all weakened to *en*, but the vowel modification caused by *jan* has remained and has been extended to a number of verbs not historically entitled to it. The following two classes embrace nearly all of the verbs derived by adding *en*:

1. Those derived from strong verbs, mostly from the stem of the past singular; as, *führen lead*, from *fahren*; *legen lay*, from *liegen*; *fällen fell*, from *fallen*. Most of such derivatives are causatives.

2. Those derived from nouns and adjectives, often without vowel modification, as many of the verbs are of late derivation. If vowel modification is present, it is due to the causes explained above or to a modified vowel already in the noun or adjective. Thus, *pflügen plow*, from *Pflug*; *füßen set foot*, from *Fuß*; *atmen breathe*, from *Atem*; *wärmen warm*, from *warm*; *grünern become green*, from *grün*; *trocknen dry*, from *trocken*.

(a) Some of the verbs belonging to these classes also undergo consonant change; as, *hicken stoop*, from *biegen*; *decken cover*, from *Dach*.

666. Derivation by Suffix. These are recognizable suffixes, thus differing from the hidden ones mentioned in the preceding section. For convenience the infinitive ending (*e*n is added to them here:

1. *EIn, ern, igen* form some derivative verbs directly; as, *handeln act*, from *Hand*; *funkeln sparkle*, from *Funke*; *folgern infer*, from *folgen*; *steigern enhance*, from *steigen*; *endigen end*, from *Ende*; *reinigen clean*, from *rein*. Verbs in *eln* may have diminutive or disparaging force; as, *lächeln smile*, from *lachen*; *frömmeln affect piety*, from *fromm*.

(a) But most of the verbs apparently derived by the aid of these suffixes are from adjectives ending in *ig* or from nouns or adjectives ending in *el* or *er*, and belong under § 665, 2.

2. *Ieren* is an accented suffix of foreign origin, and most of its derivatives are from Latin or French stems, though a few come from German; as, *studieren study*, *scharmieren charm*, *haufieren peddle*. Verbs in *ieren* were once far more numerous than now.

3. *Chen, schen, sen, zen, and enzen* are each found in a few verbs; as, *horchen listen*, from *hören*; *feilschen haggle*, from *feil*; *benamsen name*, from *Name*; *schluchzen sob*, from *schluchen*; *faulenzen loaf*, from *faul*.

667. Derivation by Prefix. Only the inseparable prefixes *be*, *ent* (or *emp*), *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*, and *miß* are prefixes of derivation. The separable prefixes and those used both separably and inseparably exist as independent words, and verbs formed with them are considered compounds here.

1. These inseparable prefixes are frequently placed before verbs to form new verbs. The resulting verb commonly differs more or less in meaning from the simple verb, but not always.

2. They may also be added to many verbs from nouns or adjectives. We may distinguish two classes of such derivative verbs: (a) Those in which the prefix has been added to an already existing verb which has been derived from a noun or an adjective; as, *verträumen dream away*, from *träumen*; *erwärmen warm*, from *wärmen*. (b) Those in which the prefix and the noun or adjective have united to form the verb; as, *beschleunigen hasten*, *zerfleischen lacerate*.

668. Meanings of Inseparable Prefixes. Only a brief and necessarily incomplete statement of the meanings of these prefixes and their influence on the meaning of the verb can be given here:

1. **Be** corresponds to the English prefix *be* and is related to *bei*. It makes intransitive verbs transitive, with a very few exceptions; as, *bewohnen occupy*, *bedienen serve*, *beleuchten illuminate*. With transitives it sometimes causes no appreciable change in meaning, but the derivative may then drive the simple verb out of use. Much oftener, however, it either changes the meaning or application of a transitive, though such changes can hardly be classified; thus, *besuchen visit*, *nehmen behave*, *besiehen observe*, *beschenken present with*, *bedenken consider*. Prefixed to verbs from nouns or adjectives, it commonly means *provide with*, *make*, and the like; as, *besiedeln provide with feathers*, *befreien set free*, *bevölkern populate*.

2. **Gut** is the weakened form of *ant* (§ 674, 2). It appears as *emp-* by assimilation, in *empfangen*, *empfehlen*, *empfinden*. Many of the intransitives to which it is prefixed govern the dative. The old meaning of *against* is possibly still felt in a few verbs; as, *entbieten send word*, *entsprechen correspond to*. It now commonly indicates separation, deprivation, and the like; as, *entspringen escape*, *entfalten unfold*, *entkräften enfeeble*, *entdecken discover*. With a few verbs it indicates the passing into a condition; as, *entschlafen fall asleep*.

3. **Er** is the weakened form of *ur* (§ 674, 7). Its original meaning, *out of, forth*, is possibly still felt in a very few verbs; as, *erbrechen break open*, *erstehen arise*. It now often indicates the passing into a condition or the beginning of an action; as, *erstarren become stiff*, *erscheinen appear*, *erwachen wake up*, *erflingen resound*. Or it marks the conclusion or result of an action; as, *ertrinken drown*, *erliegen succumb*, *erleben experience*, *erschlagen slay*. Closely connected with this latter meaning is the idea of obtaining by the action of the verb; as, *erbetteln get by begging*, *erjagen overtake*. Prefixed to verbs from nouns or adjectives, it regularly adds the first or second of these common meanings; as, *erblinden go blind*, *erröten blush*, *ergänzen complete*, *ermöglichen make possible*.

4. *Ge* probably meant originally *together*. This meaning is still to be found in derivative nouns (§ 674, 4), in *gerinnen curdle*, and possibly in two or three other verbs. In part through weakening from its use as the mere sign of the past participle, the meanings of *ge* as a verb prefix have become so various and, at times, so elusive, that an attempt to classify them has no practical value. Not infrequently the derivative in *ge* and the simple verb seem identical in meaning.

5. *Ber* represents three old particles and corresponds to English *for*. It therefore shows considerable diversity of meaning. It may add the force of *forth*, *away*; as, *berjagen chase away*, *verkaufen sell*, *verschenken give away*. It then frequently indicates loss, perversion, privation, error, and the like, or contradicts the simple verb; as, *verraten betray*, *verweisen confound*, *verführen seduce*, *verachten despise*. On the other hand, it often represents a strengthening of the action of the simple verb or indicates that the action is carried on till it ceases; as, *vermauern wall up*, *verpacken pack up*, *verflingen die away* (of a sound), *verbüthen cease to blossom*. With verbs from nouns or adjectives it indicates making, providing with, passing into the condition or, more often, bringing into the condition expressed by the noun or adjective, and the like; as, *verarmen grow poor*, *verstummen become dumb*, *vergrößern enlarge*, *vergilden gild*, *verschleiern veil*.

6. *Zer* signifies *to pieces*, *apart*, *asunder*; as, *zergliebern dismember*, *zerreißen tear to pieces*, *zersprengen shatter*.

7. *Mis* corresponds in force to the English prefix *mis*, though it cannot always be so translated; as, *mißbrauchen misuse*, *mistrauen distrust*, *mishandeln maltreat*. For its occasional accent see § 498.

669. Verbs from Other Parts of Speech. The derivative verbs heretofore mentioned have all come from other verbs or from nouns or adjectives. The latter are often called *denominative* verbs. A few verbs are, however, derived from other parts of speech by the methods described above; as, *duzen thee-and-thou*, from *du*; *empören revolt*, from *empor*; *begegnen meet*, from *gegen*.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS

670. Primitive Nouns. These include a number of nouns of one syllable and a few of more than one syllable, all of which show no trace of derivation in any period of the German language; as, *Hund dog*, *Wald wood*, *Kind child*, *Tag day*, *Vater father*, *Erde earth*. But see § 661.

671. Derivation by Change in the Root. Many nouns are related to verbs by vowel gradation (§ 85). They are mostly masculine. Endings which have now disappeared have in some cases caused vowel modification or other vowel change. Thus, *Rat advice* — *raten*; *Trumf drink* — *trinken*; *Spruch maxim* — *sprechen*; *Tritt step* — *treten*.

672. Derivation by Suffix. The suffixes *d*, *t*, *de*, *te*, *st*, *ft*, *(e)m*, *(e)n*, and a few others of very infrequent occurrence, no longer have recognizable force, and some of them, at least, are hardly felt as suffixes, their derivatives having the aspect of primitives. The root may show vowel gradation or other vowel or consonant change. Thus, *Tracht costume* — *tragen*; *Hälste half* — *halb*; *Brand burning* — *brennen*; *Freude joy* — *froh*.

673. A number of other suffixes with more distinct form and meaning are given below. They give rise, in part, to vowel modification, though the reason for the modification may not be evident in their present weakened form (§ 83). Some of them are still effective in forming new derivatives.

i. **Chen** and **lein** form neuter diminutives; as, *Häuschen* *little house*, *Bächlein* *brooklet*. In a few words there is a double suffix; as, *Büchelchen* *booklet*. Occasionally the suffix is added to a plural in *er*; as, *Kinderchen* *children*. Ordinarily the suffix is added to the stem of the singular, but the endings *e* and *en* are regularly dropped; as, *Gäßchen* *alley*, from *Gasse*; *Gärtchen* *little garden*, from *Garten*. Modification of the stem vowel is the rule, but there are frequent exceptions, especially with dissyllabic nouns; as, *Onkelchen* *dear uncle*, *Frauchen* *little woman*. Diminutives of names of persons are, however, prevailingly without the modification, though it may occur; as, *Karlchen* *Charley*, *Hänschen* *Johnny*.

(a) In literature *lein* is now mostly poetical, *chen* being the ordinary prose suffix, except where it forms a harsh combination; but *lein* is also

in regular colloquial use in South Germany. For the meaning of the diminutives see § 278.

(b) The suffixes *el* and *ling* (or *ing*) sometimes have diminutive force. Dialectical forms of diminutives may also be found in some kinds of literature; as, *Türl door*, *Mutti*, *Muttel*, *Mutting mother*, *Buberl boy*, *Mäbli girl*.

2. *E* represents several older suffixes which have weakened to *e*. Some of its derivatives therefore modify the vowel, others do not. It forms a large number of derivatives from verbs; as, *Gabe gift*, from *geben*; *Bote messenger*, from *bieten*; *Trause drip*, from *traufen*. It is also freely added to adjectives, regularly with vowel modification; as, *Länge length*, from *lang*; *Größe greatness*, from *groß*; *Stille stillness*, from *still*.

3. *Et* is an accented suffix of foreign origin. It forms feminines and is added to both foreign and German noun and verb stems; as, *Abtei abbey*, *Gaukeli jugglery*, *Kinderei childishness*. It is so often added to German singulars and plurals in *er* that *erei* has come to be felt as an actual suffix; as, *Dieberei thievery*, from *Dieb*. Derivatives in *et* often have a disparaging or humorous meaning.

(a) *Et* is an accented suffix of similar origin and is a frequent ending of borrowed feminines, chiefly scientific terms; as, *Geographie*, *Theorie*, *Melodie*. Of like origin, but unaccented, is the suffix *ien* in some neuter geographical names; as, *Spanien Spain*, *Asien Asia*.

4. *El* generally forms masculine derivatives which commonly denote the instrument or, less frequently, the agent, though other meanings occur; as, *Dedel cover*, *Schlegel mallet*, *Schaufel shovel*, *Büttel beadle*.

(a) The few neuters in *el* in the literary language are mostly diminutives. In South Germany *el*, added to nouns, is a common diminutive and consequently finds its way into dialectically colored literature. See *i b above*.

5. *Er* is added freely to nouns and verbs. Its derivatives are nearly all masculine and commonly denote the agent;

as, *Helfer helper*, *Maler painter*, *Schäfer shepherd*, *Gärtner gardener*. Added to names of countries and towns, it indicates an inhabitant; as, *Engländer Englishman*, *Berliner Berliner*. The genitive plural of these derivatives from names of towns and, occasionally, from names of countries is also used as an indeclinable adjective; see §§ 322 and 677, 3.

(a) Through the frequent addition of er to nouns in en and el, the syllables ner and ler have come to be used as suffixes; thus, *Tischler cabinetmaker*, *Glöckner bell ringer*. A number of borrowed nouns in ter, eur, and or correspond to German words in er; as, *Offizier officer*, *Rebatteur editor*, *Professor professor*.

6. **Heit** and **keit** form feminine abstracts. **Heit**, which corresponds to English *head*, *hood*, is added to noun and adjective stems; as, *Gottheit godhead*, *Freiheit freedom*. A few of its derivatives have collective force; as, *Menschheit mankind*. **Keit** has developed from **heit** and is added to adjectives in bar, el, er, ig, lich, and sam; as, *Dankbarkeit thankfulness*, *Eitelkeit vanity*, *Sparsamkeit economy*. Its frequent addition to adjectives in ig has resulted in the suffix **igkeit**; as, *Chrlösigkeit dishonesty*, *Süßigkeit sweetness*.

7. **In** is added to masculine nouns to form feminines, referring mostly to persons, though not infrequently to female animals. It usually causes vowel modification, but the exceptions are numerous. Thus, *Königin queen*, *Hirtin shepherdess*, *Malerin (woman) painter*, *Füchsin she-fox*. The ending e and usually one er in nouns in erer are dropped before adding in; as, *Löwin lioness*, *Zauberin enchantress*. For the old-fashioned use of in with titles and family names see § 288.

8. **Ling** corresponds in meaning to English *ling*. It forms derivatives, mainly masculine, from verb, noun, and adjective stems; as, *Säugling suckling*, *Jährling yearling*, *Jüngling youth*. As the suffix usually denotes origin or has diminutive force, its derivatives often take on a disparaging sense; as, *Dichterling poetaster*.

(a) The simple form of the suffix is *ing*, which still survives in a few words; as, *Hering herring*, *Fasching carnival*, and, with modern loss of *n*, in *König king* and *Pfennig penny*. It also occurs in a few proper names, sometimes followed by the suffix *er*, or in what was formerly the dative plural; as, *Henning*, family name, *Carolinger Carolingian*, *Tübingen* (city of) *Tübingen*.

9. **Nis** corresponds to English *ness* and forms abstract nouns from verb and adjective stems. Many of its derivatives also take on a concrete meaning. They are mostly neuter, but a few are feminine. Thus, *Bündnis alliance*, *Finsternis darkness*. Its derivatives are formed freely from verbs with the inseparable prefixes; as, *Begräbnis burial*, *Verzeichnis list*.

10. **Sal** and **sel**. The latter is the weakened form of the former. Their derivatives, which are nearly all neuter, come almost entirely from verbs, and those in *sal* are mainly abstract nouns; as, *Schicksal fate*, *Mühlsal difficulty*, *Lebsal refreshment*, *Rätsel riddle*.

11. **Schaft** corresponds to English *ship*. Its derivatives are feminine abstracts and collectives from nouns, adjectives, and participles; as, *Meisterschaft mastery*, *Freundschaft friendship*, *Hinterlassenschaft estate*.

12. **Teil** is the weakened form of the neuter noun *Teil part*, and shows the manner in which suffixes may have originated. Thus, *Dritteil* and *Drittel third*, are still in use, though the latter is the commoner. *Teil* is added to ordinals to make fractionals. The final *t* of the ordinal is dropped; as, *Fünftel fifth*, *Achtel eighth*, *Zwanzigstel twentieth*.

13. **Tum** corresponds to English *dom*, and forms derivatives from nouns and, less frequently, from adjectives. Thus, *Christentum christendom*, *Fürstentum principality*, *Eigentum property*. Its derivatives are neuter, except the masculines *Irrtum error* and *Reichtum riches*.

14. **Ung** forms numerous feminine verbal nouns, corres-

ponding to English verbals in *ing*; as, *Öffnung opening*, *Rechnung account*, *Handlung action*. A very few of its derivatives do not come from verbs; as, *Walbung woodland*, *Zeitung newspaper*, *Festung fort*.

15. Several other suffixes form a small number of nouns each. The most important are (a)nd and (e)nd, both representing a participial ending, and at, iqt, ig, ut, and riq. Thus, *Heiland savior*, *Eugend virtue*, *Feind enemy*, *Heimat home*, *Dickicht thicket*, *Honig honey*, *Armut poverty*, *Wüterich tyrant*.

674. Derivation by Prefix. Many nouns with one of the separable or inseparable prefixes are derived from verbs with these prefixes and do not belong here. *Ge* and *miß*, however, are both used with nouns which also occur without them, and they are therefore included in the following list:

1. *Afster*, though corresponding to English *after*, often adds the meaning of *false*; as, *Aftermiete sublease*, *Afsterföniq pretender*, *Aftergröñce false greatness*. Such words are not numerous and could be considered compounds. See § 689, 1.

2. *Ant* is an accented prefix and survives in *Antlitz countenance* and *Antwort answer*. For its weakened and unaccented form *ent*, used as an inseparable verb prefix, see § 668, 2.

3. *Erz* is also an accented prefix, and is the same in derivation and meaning as the English *arch*; thus, *Erzbischof archbishop*, *Erzengel archangel*, *Erfeind archenemy*.

4. *Ge* (see also § 668, 4) is found with many derivative nouns, a part of which can be brought under three classes: (a) Those denoting a person engaged in the same activity and the like; as, *Gespiele playmate*, *Gefährte companion*. To these may be added *Gebrüder brothers* and *Geschwister brothers and sisters*. (b) Those denoting collection; as, *Gebirge mountains*, *Gesträuch shrubbery*. (c) Those conveying the idea of

the verb or the result of its action; as, *Gebet prayer*, *Ge-dicht poem*, *Gehör hearing*. Many of its derivatives from verbs have the suffix *e* and show vowel and consonant changes. Most of the nouns with *Ge* are neuter, those in class *a* and perhaps a dozen others are masculine, and a few are feminine. Some nouns have dropped the *e* of the prefix; as, *Glied member*, *Glück luck*, *Gnade grace*.

5. *Miß* is the same in origin and meaning as the inseparable verb prefix (§ 668, 7), but is commonly accented; thus, *Mißgriff mistake*, *Mißvergnügen discontent*, *Mißernte bad harvest*, and (keeping the full form) *Mißsetat misdeed*.

6. *Un* corresponds to English *un*, but is more widely used with nouns. It may signify negation or the opposite of the noun to which it is prefixed, or it may imply something injurious or disagreeable. It may also increase the force of the noun. Thus, *Unsinn nonsense*, *Unrecht wrong*, *Ungeheuer monster*, *Unzahl endless number*. It is regularly accented. But see § 679, 3.

7. *Ur* is an accented prefix whose weakened and unaccented form is *er* (§ 668, 3). A few of its derivatives, such as *Urteil judgment* and *Urlaub leave of absence*, show meanings akin to those of *er*. In most cases, however, it conveys the meaning of *original*, *primeval*; as, *Urwald primeval forest*, *Urbild prototype*, *Ursache cause*.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES

675. Primitive Adjectives. A number of adjectives of one syllable and some of more than one syllable are considered primitive, as they show no signs of derivation in any period of the German language; thus, *gut good*, *blind blind*, *wild wild*, *übel ill*, *eben even*. But see § 661.

676. Derivation by Change in the Root. A few adjectives are related to verbs by vowel gradation (§ 85); as, *brauch* — *brennen*; *blau* *shining* — *blinken*; *flügge* *fledged* —

fliegen. Some of the adjectives here and among the primitives retain the old ending e.

677. Derivation by Suffix. Some little-used suffixes are not given in the list below. The terminations (e)nd, (e)t, en of participles, and er, (e)st of comparatives and superlatives, are also omitted. They partake of the nature of suffixes, but are best considered under inflection. See § 663. Most of the suffixes below form adjectives from more than one part of speech. Those which do not are mentioned specifically. Some of them cause modification of the vowel of the stem, though the reason for it may not be evident in their present weakened form (§ 83).

1. **Bar** was originally an independent word, apparently of the same derivation as (ge)bären *bear*. Its derivatives commonly have the meaning of English adjectives in *able* or *ible*; as, sichtbar *visible*, brauchbar *serviceable*, dankbar *thankful*, offenbar *evident*.

2. **Ern**, which corresponds to English *en*, is added to nouns to form adjectives of material or kind. It loses its e after er. Thus, golden *golden*, irden *earthen*, silbern *silver*, hölzern *wooden*. Through the addition of this suffix to stems or plurals in er has arisen the new suffix ern, which requires vowel modification; as, stählern *steel*.

3. **Gr** occurs only with indeclinable adjectives which are actually the genitive plural of nouns derived from names of towns or, occasionally, of countries. See §§ 322 and 673, 5.

4. **Erlei** forms indeclinable adjectives from numerals and indefinites; as, zweierlei *of two kinds*, vielerlei *of many kinds*. Er is really the genitive ending of the adjective and lei an obsolete feminine noun meaning *kind*, *sort*. The indeclinable adjective allerhand *all kinds of* is derived in a similar way from all and Hand.

5. **Hast** is added mainly to nouns and commonly indicates partaking of the quality designated by the word to which

it is joined; as, *dauerhaft lasting*, *wahrhaft true*, *lebhaft lively*, *wohnhaft domiciled*. The suffix *ig* is sometimes added to *haft*; as, *leibhaftig bodily*.

6. *Icht* occurs with derivatives that are closely related in meaning to those in *ig* and are now almost completely superseded by the latter. *Töricht foolish* is perhaps the only one still in common use, though a few others occur more or less frequently.

7. *Ig* is the same as English *y*, though not necessarily so translated; as, *blutig bloody*, *findig clever*, *gütig kindly*, *übrig over*, *heutig of to-day*. For its use with other suffixes see *feit* (§ 673, 6), and *haft* above, and *selig*, *fältig*, etc., below.

8. *Ish* is English *ish*, but it may also have the force of *ic*, *al*, and the like. It forms its derivatives from nouns; as, *diebisch thievish*, *irdisch earthly*, *historisch historic(al)*, *preußisch Prussian*. It has disparaging force in a few derivatives; as, *weibisch womanish*. From its frequent addition to nouns in *er* it has given rise to the suffix *erisch*; as, *regnerisch rainy*.

(a) Added to proper names, it may retain or reject its *i*; thus, *Schillerisch* or *Schillerisch*, *Goethisch* or *Goethisch*. Some modern writers make a distinction between the two forms; as, *Schillerisch after the manner of Schiller*, *Schillerisch Schiller's, written by Schiller*.

9. *Lich* is a very common suffix, cognate with English *ly*; as, *freundlich friendly*, *jährlich yearly*, *schädlich harmful*, *fröhlich joyful*. Many of its derivatives from adjectives have a diminutive meaning; as, *fränklich sickly*, *länglich longish*. From its frequent addition to words in *er* it has given rise to the suffix *erlich*; as, *fürchterlich frightful*, *leserlich legible*.

10. *Sam* is the same as English *some*, but its derivatives have much greater variety of meaning; as, *heilsam wholesome*, *grausam cruel*, *aufmerksam attentive*, *folgsam obedient*.

11. *Selig* has a double origin: (a) It arose from nouns in

ſal through the addition of *ig* and consequent vowel modification (*ſelig* being written for *fālīg*). The whole was then felt as a suffix and added to other words. Thus, *mühselig* *toilsome*, from *Mühsal*; but *armſelig* *miserable*, from *arm*. (b) It is occasionally the adjective *ſelig* *blessed*; as, *gottſelig* *godly*.

678. Several other endings used in forming adjectives exist as independent words. As such they really form compounds (§ 689), but their meaning is changed or weakened in these combinations, and they thus have something in common with suffixes. For convenience they are therefore considered here:

1. **Los**, as an adjective, means *loose*, *free*; as a suffix, *less*; thus, *blattlos* *leafless*, *treulos* *faithless*. Its derivatives add *ig* before the suffix *keit*; as, *Harmlosigkeit* *harmlessness*.

2. **Voll** is equivalent to *ful* with adjectives; as, *tummervoll* *sorrowful*, *liebenvoll* *loving*.

3. **Fach**, as a noun, means *division*, *compartment*; as an adjective suffix it is equivalent to *fold*; thus, *einfach* *simple*, *dreifach* *threefold*, *vielfach* *manifold*.

4. **Fältig** corresponds to English *fold*; as, *dreifältig* *threefold*, *tausendfältig* *thousandfold*. Adjectives ending in the simple *falt* are now unusual.

5. **Artig**, as an adjective, means *mannerly*, *well-behaved*, but it signifies *the kind* or *nature* of, if added to form adjectives; as, *bößartig* *bad*, *fremdartig* *strange*, *wolfsartig* *cloudlike*.

6. **Mäßig**, as an adjective, means *in due measure*, *moderate*. It forms adjectives of manner; as, *heldenmäßig* *heroic*, *planmäßig* *systematic*, *regelmäßig* *regular*.

7. **Förmig** perhaps occurs no more as an adjective, but it retains its meaning of *shaped* as a suffix; thus, *herzförmig* *heart-shaped*, *sattelförmig* *shaped like a saddle*.

8. Possibly two or three others of the same general character might be added. But most of the adjectives which are freely used to form other adjectives, such as *breit*, *kundig*, *reich*, etc., retain more fully than those above their usual meaning and form unquestionable compounds.

679. **Derivation by Prefix.** Quite a number of adjectives with separable or inseparable prefixes exist; as, *umständlich*

circumstantial, enthaltsam abstemious. In such adjectives, however, the prefix evidently belongs to the word from which the adjective is derived. The prefixes below do form adjectives directly. For a fuller account of their meaning see under derivation of nouns, § 674.

1. *Erz* is occasionally prefixed to adjectives and intensifies their meaning; as, *erzfaul exceedingly lazy, erzdumm extremely stupid.*

2. *Ge* is used rather freely as an adjective prefix. Its derivatives from verbal stems may also take the suffix *ig*. Thus, *getreu faithful, geläufig current, genehm agreeable, gestreng severe.*

(a) Quite a number of words which are now used only as adjectives have the form of past participles with *ge* or with other prefixes. Some of them are not from verbs, but in the case of most the verb once existed, though no longer in use; as, *belesen well-read, bejährt aged, gestirnt starry, gesittet well-behaved, entlegen remote, verschlossen missing, zerlumpt ragged.*

3. *Un* forms numerous adjectives; as, *untreu faithless, unglücklich unlucky, unebel ignoble.* It is commonly accented, but there are numerous exceptions. Usage is much unsettled, with perhaps a growing tendency to loss of accent, as in English. The accent is more stable with nouns, though not always retained. *Un* is oftenest without accent when prefixed to adjectives in *bär, lidi, and sam* from verbal stems, or when the simple adjective does not exist; as, *unsterblich immortal, unbefähbar inconceivable, unendlich infinite, unfähiglich unspeakable* (there is no word *fähiglich*).

4. *Ur* is used to derive a few adjectives; as, *uralt very old, urdeutsch ancient or thoroughly German.*

5. *Miß*, commonly unaccented, is prefixed to a number of adjectives. It is questionable, however, whether any of them belong here. They are derived, rather, from verbs or nouns to which *miß* was already prefixed.

DERIVATION OF NUMERALS

680. The cardinal numerals from *ein* to *zwölf* may be classed as primitives. *Hundert* and *tausend* are very old compounds. *Million, Milliarde, etc.,* are foreign words. Those from *dreizehn* to *neunzehn* inclusive are compounds, the others are derivatives. The relation of the ordinals and other numerals to the cardinals is explained in §§ 149–152.

DERIVATION OF PRONOUNS

681. Most of the pronouns are to be considered as primitives. Some are obvious derivatives; as, *jeglich*, *einig*, *meinig* (*in der meinige*, etc.). *Welch*, from the stem of *wer*, and *söldich*, from *so*, contain the suffix *lich* disguised.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

682. Primitive Adverbs. A number of adverbs of one syllable may be regarded as primitive; thus, *nun now*, *ja yes*, *ob over*, *in in*. To these may be added the adverbs from old pronominal stems; as, *da there*, *hier here*, *wann when*, *wo where*. A few old derivatives from some of these primitive adverbs might also be included; as, *oben above* and *über over*, from *ob*; *hinnen hence*, from *hin*; *inne and innen within*, from *in*.

683. Other Parts of Speech as Adverbs. 1. Adjectives, including participles which have become adjectives, are freely used as adverbs without change; thus, *gut*, adj. *good*, adv. *well*; *schnell*, adj. *quick*, adv. *quickly*; *weise*, adj. *wise*, adv. *wisely*; *reizend*, adj. *charming*, adv. *charmingly*.

(a) Formerly the adverb was distinguished from the adjective by a suffix. This suffix, which was weakened finally to *e*, disappeared with most adverbs but is still used regularly in *lange*, from *lang*, if meaning *for a long time*. It also occurs rather frequently in *gerne willingly*, and occasionally in *ferne remotely*, *balde soon*, *sanfte gently*, and a few other words. When the adjective ends in *e*, as *weise* above, the *e* is retained in the adverb.

2. A number of adverbs are only the oblique case of a noun or an adjective. They are mostly genitives in *§*; as, *anders otherwise*, *links to the left*, *teils partly*. Several are old accusatives; as, *weg away*, *heim home*. Compare with this the adverbial genitive (§ 446) and accusative (§ 469) of nouns. The few adverbs regarded as originally datives are no longer recognizable as such; thus, *einzeln singly*, *mitten in the midst*.

(a) Quite a number of adverbs are actually the genitive of a noun preceded by a dependent article, adjective, or adverb; as, *desfalls therefore*, *einigermaßen in some measure*, *mittlerweile meanwhile*. *Weise*, preceded by a noun, is freely used as an adverbial accusative; as, *teilweise partly*, *ausnahmeweise exceptionally*, *scharrentweise in troops*.

3. *Gelt surely*, *geschweige not to mention*, *much less*, and perhaps two or three other words used as adverbs are actually verb forms.

4. Several adverbs are actually the combination of a preposition with a noun or an adjective; as, *zumal principally*, *überhaupt generally*, *heinahe almost*, *auf^s neue anew*.

684. Derivation by Suffix. 1. *S* is generally merely the genitive ending, as explained above, but it is sometimes added to words that do not form their genitive in *s*; as, *diesseits on this side*, *nachts at night*.

2. *Ens* is probably the adjective ending *en* with *s* as above. Its derivatives nearly all come from ordinal numerals and from superlatives; as, *erstens firstly*, *zweitens secondly*, *schönstens very much*, *nächstens soon*, *übrigens moreover*.

3. *Lich* is generally the ordinary adjective suffix, and adverbs with it belong mostly to § 683, 1. It is, however, also used where no adjective in *lich* exists; as, *hoffentlich it is to be hoped*, *folglich consequently*, *höchlich highly*.

4. *Lings* is ordinarily the adjective suffix with added *s*, but it is also used where no adjective in *ling* exists; as, *häuptlings headforemost*, *rittlings astraddle*, *blinblings blindly*.

5. *Wärts* is the genitive of an adjective which is no longer used. Adverbs ending in *it* are therefore to be included among the derivatives; as, *seitwärts sideways*, *aufwärts upward*, *heimwärts homeward*. The method of derivation with *wärts* is essentially the same as that described in § 683, 2 a.

DERIVATION OF PREPOSITIONS

685. The older prepositions were originally adverbs, and nearly all of them are still used as such; thus, *aus*, *durch*, *an*, *vor*. In their adverbial use they are commonly separable verbal prefixes or indicate direction of motion, mostly with *her* or *hin* (as, *herab*, *hinauf*). A few

of the prepositions are derivatives from these older words; as, *über* from *ob*. In several cases there is a form in *en* for the adverb and one in *er* for the preposition; as, *hinten* and *hinter*, *unten* and *unter*.

686. Quite a number of the prepositions are nouns, adjectives, or participles in their origin, or consist of a preposition and its object blended to form a new preposition; as, *trotz* *in spite of*, *nächst* *next to*, *während* *during*, *anstatt* *instead of*. Some of these have become as completely prepositions as those mentioned above; some retain in other relations their former use. Thus, *Trotz* is still used as noun. The newest formations generally govern the genitive.

DERIVATION OF CONJUNCTIONS

687. The conjunctions are mostly adverbs in origin, and only part of them are used solely as conjunctions even now. A few are from other parts of speech; thus, *daß* is the pronoun *da*, and *weil* comes from the noun *Weile*.

DERIVATION OF INTERJECTIONS

688. All the actual interjections, such as *o*, *ah*, *uh*, etc., are to be classed as primitives. For other parts of speech as interjections see § 609, 2.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS

689. Composition is the joining of two or more independent words to form a new word. The constituent words commonly retain their own force, as in *Reitpferd* *riding horse*, but they may blend into an entirely new meaning, as in *Jungfrau* *virgin*.

i. Derivation by prefix or suffix is therefore essentially the same process as composition, the chief difference being that the prefixes and suffixes do not exist as independent words. It is therefore not always easy to separate derivatives from compounds. For example, verbs derived from other verbs by the aid of the inseparable prefixes are included among the derivatives in this book. But they are not derivatives in the same sense as verbs derived from nouns and adjectives by the aid of the same prefixes, and might be considered compounds.

690. Compounds consist of two members, though possibly of more than two words. The last member regularly carries

the inflection and the first the chief accent. The first member regularly limits or in some way explains the last.

COMPOUND VERBS

691. Compound verbs have already been considered either under verbs with separable prefixes (§ 499) or under those with the prefixes *durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *unter*, *um*, *wieder*, and *voll* (§§ 500–502), which are both separable and inseparable. The verbs with separable prefixes are, strictly speaking, not compounds, as the prefix is attached to the verb only under certain conditions. Those with the inseparable prefixes just mentioned are stable compounds, but they are an exception to the rule for accent, as the stress is on the second member.

1. Some derivative verbs have the appearance of compounds. Thus, *frühstücken* *breakfast* and *ratschlagen* *consult* are actually derived from the nouns *Frühstück* and *Ratschlag*.

COMPOUND NOUNS

692. Last Member. The last member of a compound noun is regularly a noun or an infinitive used as a noun. It determines the declension and gender of the compound, while the chief accent rests on the first member. The exceptions are not numerous; for those to the rule for gender see § 272, and to the rule for accent § 79, 1.

1. Compounds whose last member is not a noun are comparatively infrequent. They consist of: (a) A noun followed by some modifier; as, *Vaterunser* *the Lord's prayer*, *Jahrzehnt* *decade*. (b) An adjective preceded by some modifier; as, *Nimmersatt* *glutton*, *Immergrün* *evergreen*. (c) A verb in some relation; as, *Stelldeich* *rendezvous*, *Springinsfeld* *giddy fellow*, *Taugenichts* *good-for-nothing fellow*. (d) A few others less easy to classify; as, *Gelängerjelieber* *honeysuckle*, *Garaus* *finishing stroke*.

2. A few compounds were originally an oblique case of a noun preceded by a modifier; as, *Mitternacht* *midnight*, originally an adverbial genitive. *Muttergottes* *Virgin Mary* and a very few other nouns are anomalous in having as the second member a dependent genitive.

693. First Member. The first member regularly limits or explains the second but receives the chief accent. It is commonly a noun, adjective, or adverb, but may be any part of speech. Thus, *Äpfelbaum* *apple tree*, *Edelmann* *nobleman*, *Singvogel* *singing bird*, *Selbstmord* *suicide*, *Wohlstand* *prosperity*, *Borstadt* *suburb*.

694. Manner of Joining the Members. 1. The simplest and commonest way is to place the stem of the first member before the second; as, *Handbuch* *handbook*, *Großvater* *grandfather*, *Umweg* *detour*.

2. The connecting vowel *e*, which originated as the weakened survival of several old stem endings, is found in some compounds; as, *Schweinesleisch* *pork*, *Bösewicht* *villain*, *Lesebuch* *reader*.

3. The first member is often a noun in the genitive singular or plural; as, *Tageslicht* *daylight*, *Knabenstreich* *boyish trick*, *Blumenstrauß* *bunch of flowers*, *Wörterbuch* *dictionary*. The old genitive singular endings *e* and *en* of feminine nouns still survive in the first member of some compounds, though now out of use with the simple noun; as, *Gänsestall* *goose coop*, *Erdensohn* *son of earth*. The *i* of *Bräutigam* *betrothed* and *Nächtigall* *nightingale* is probably the unweakened genitive ending.

4. The first member is sometimes a substantive adjective in the genitive plural or an infinitive in the genitive singular; as, *Krankenhaus* *hospital*, *Lebenslauf* *career*. In some proper names it is a declined adjective in *en*, due to the disappearance of a preposition; as, *Altenburg*, from *an der alten Burg*. Otherwise the stem of an adjective, rarely with connecting *e*, or the present stem of a verb, not infrequently with connecting *e*, is used for the first member; as, *Großvater* *grandfather*, *Bösewicht* *villain*, *Spinnrad* *spinning wheel*, *Vindewort* *conjunction*.

5. But the endings *(e)s* and *(e)n* have become in many

instances mere connectives and are used after nouns which are not in the genitive or which have, if used alone, an ending different from that in the compound; as, *Wandersmann* *wanderer*, *Geburtstag* *birthday*, *Hirtenknabe* *shepherd boy*, *Palmenbaum* *palm tree*.

695. Relation of the Members. The first member regularly explains or limits the second. It may therefore represent one of several grammatical relations, which may be roughly and incompletely classified as follows: 1. Explanatory, equivalent to an adjective or appositive; as, *Hirtenknabe* *shepherd boy*, *Eichbaum* *oak tree*. 2. One of the several genitives dependent on nouns (§ 437); as, *Baumstamm* *tree trunk*, *Mondchein* *moonshine*, *Glückskind* *favorite of fortune*. 3. An accusative; as, *Ratgeber* *adviser*, *Ackerbau* *agriculture*. 4. Place, time, instrument, origin, material, and the like, relations commonly expressed by a prepositional phrase; as, *Waldweg* *wood path*, *Mittagessen* *dinner*, *Schieferdach* *slate roof*. 5. Comparison; as, *Bandwurm* *tapeworm*, *Rabenmutter* *unnatural mother*. Occasionally the members are coördinate, as if connected by *und*; as, *Fürstbischof* *prince (and) bishop*.

696. Long Compounds. The compounds mentioned above consist of only two words. Those of greater length occur, as each member may be a compound. As a matter of fact, however, compounds of more than three words, for example *Fälschmünzerwerkzeug* *counterfeiter's tools* and *Fernsprechteilnehmer* *telephone subscriber*, are not numerous, and those of three are greatly outnumbered by those of two.

697. False Compounds. In a few instances combinations of an adjective and a following noun are written as one word though each part retains its own inflection. Thus, *der Hohenpriester* *high priest*, *des Hohenpriesters*, etc. These are not, of course, real compounds. Other examples are *Langeweile* *tedium*, *Geheimerat* *privy councilor*, *Armesünder* *condemned*

criminal. Some of them also occur as actual compounds; thus, *der Geheimrat*, *des Geheimrats*.

1. Different from these are derivatives which look like compounds; as, *Haushalt housekeeping*, from *haushalten*; *Überzieher overcoat*, from *überziehen*.

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

698. Compound adjectives also consist of two members. The last member is always an adjective or a participle used as an adjective, and receives the endings of declension. The chief accent regularly rests on the first member, though there are more exceptions to this rule than is the case with nouns. (See also § 79, 1.) The first member is commonly either a noun or an adjective, but it may be the pronoun *selb(s)t*, the present stem of a verb, an adverb, or a preposition; as, *leidvoll sorrowful*, *engherzig illiberal*, *selbstbewußt self-conscious*, *merkwürdig remarkable*, *wohlseil cheap*, *aufrichtig sincere*.

1. There are a number of adjectives which look as if they were derived from compound nouns, though the nouns do not exist; as, *eigenhändig with one's own hand*, *langarmig long-armed*. These could be considered compound adjectives. Others are derivations from compound nouns; as, *allmächtig almighty*, from *Allmacht*; *wohltätig beneficent*, from *Wohltat*.

2. As is the case with nouns (§ 696), compound adjectives consist mostly of only two words, and those having more than three are rare.

699. **Manner of Joining the Members.** The first member is regularly placed before the second without connecting vowel or consonant; as, *blutrot blood-red*, *hochmütig haughty*, *unterirdisch subterranean*. Nouns, including infinitives, present exceptions to this rule. They may be joined to the second member in any of the ways described under compound nouns (§ 694); thus, *ruhmreich glorious*, *reisefreudig fond of travel*, *lebensmüde weary of life*, *altersgrau hoary with years*, *menschenleer deserted*.

700. **Relation of the Members.** Occasionally the two

members of a compound adjective are coördinate, with the same value as if connected by und; thus, grün=weiß=rot *green, white, and red*; taubstumm *deaf-mute*. Ordinarily, however, the first member explains or limits the second in one of the ways already set forth under compound nouns (§ 695); as, treuherzig *true-hearted*, ehrwürdig *venerable*, heilbringend *wholesome*, frühreif *precocious*, schamrot *blushing with shame*, steinhart *hard as stone*.

COMPOUND PRONOUNS

701. *Febermann* and, less obviously, *jemand* and *niemand* have *Mann* as their last member. Some of the other indefinites are actually compounds, though hardly to be recognized as such from the evidence of the language to-day. As such words cannot be arranged in groups, their origin must be left to the dictionary. *Derjenige* and *derselbe*, with one or two other less usual words of the same type, are spurious compounds, each element having its own declension.

COMPOUND PARTICLES

702. There are a number of compounds of which the last member is an adverb and the first some other part of speech, commonly an adverb or a preposition; as, *ebenso just so*, *vorgestern day before yesterday*, *hierher hither*, *anderswo elsewhere*, *damit therewith*, *bergauf uphill*. Some adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions consist of words closely connected in sense and written as if they were compounds; as, *entgegen against*, , *seitdem since*, *wenngleich although*.

WORDS OF FOREIGN ORIGIN

703. In earlier periods German added quite a number of words from other languages which have now become wholly naturalized. The oldest of them have passed through the vowel and consonant changes affecting the language after their adoption; thus, *Schule school*, from 'schola'; *dicten compose*, from 'dictare.' Such words have taken the German accent and inflection and look like native words. Some of the words of later adoption have also become thoroughly Germanized.

704. A number of other words have apparently found secure lodgment in the language and add German endings but keep their foreign

accent; as, *Nation nation*, *Offizier officer*. Others are still wholly foreign, retaining their own accent and inflection. German has borrowed very many words in the course of its long history. The vast majority of them have gone out of use. The survivors tend to become more nearly naturalized. The process is being constantly repeated, for the foreign importations, like the slang, of one generation mostly fail to win the favor of the next.

RELATION OF GERMAN TO ENGLISH

705. Ancient Sanskrit, Persian, Greek, Latin, and the Germanic, Celtic, and Slavic languages, with their modern descendants, are members of the Indo-European family of languages. These languages had a common origin in some remote period whose date cannot be established. The Germanic languages share in certain characteristics which separate them from the others and form of them a smaller group. The important living members of this group are High and Low German, English, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian. English is of Low German origin but has had an independent existence and development, and we now consider it as distinct from German. It also has a large French element, due to the Norman conquest, to say nothing of words from other sources.

706. Shifting of Consonants. English and German have many words which resemble each other closely and many others whose resemblance is not so close. Such words of common origin, though not now always of the same meaning, are called *cognates*. Only the cause of the most regular resemblances and differences in the words of the two languages can be stated here and that only in a brief and elementary way. This cause is expressed in the law of the shifting of certain consonants (or *Lautverschiebung*), often called Grimm's law from its having been first fully stated, though not first discovered, by Jacob Grimm. We have to deal actually with two shiftings. The first sets the Germanic languages apart from the others of the Indo-European family. The second is an important ground of distinction between High and Low German and consequently between literary German and English.

707. The consonants concerned in the shifting are the stops (or mutes). In our alphabet the voiceless stops are represented by the letters *t, p, k*, and the voiced by *d, b, g*. In addition there were aspirate stops, which we may represent approximately by *th, dh, ph, bh, kh, gh*. These aspirates are supposed to have been pronounced about like *th, gh*, etc. in such words as *boathook, hard-hearted, foghorn*. The English sounds represented by *th* are fricatives, not aspirates.

708. First Shifting. This shifting, which must have passed through several stages, resulted as follows: Indo-European *t, p, k* became the fricatives *th, f, h* in the Germanic languages; the aspirates became the voiced stops *d, b, g*; the voiced stops *d, b, g* became the voiceless stops *t, p, k*. Under certain conditions, the fricatives just mentioned became the voiced stops *d, b, g*. There are other variations which cannot be considered here. The first shifting took place in prehistoric times.

709. Second Shifting. This shifting began within the historic period of the German language and was not completed for several centuries. It was most effective in the South and produced very little change in the extreme North. For that reason it is often called the High German shifting, and the degree of its action is a factor in classifying the High German dialects. The point stops were most affected, the lip stops less, and the back stops least of all. The most important changes, as found in the literary language, can be briefly summarized as follows: Germanic *t* was shifted to *s* or *z*, *d* to *t*, *th* to *d*, *p* to *pf* or *f*. A few other changes are noted below.

1. The position of the consonant in the word — that is, whether it was initial, medial, or final — also had influence over the extent and character of the shifting. A stop was, moreover, often protected from change by another consonant, as *d* by *n* or *l*, or *t* by *s*. In many cases a later leveling disguised or undid the work of the shifting. English represents the Germanic pretty faithfully, in the main, so far as the

consonants in question are concerned, but has its own exceptions. German also has its deviations from the second shifting. The subject of the correspondences between German and English is therefore a very large and intricate one, and a full treatment of it is impossible here.

710. Correspondences. The following are the commonest correspondences between German and English, so far as the consonants mentioned above are concerned:

1. *t* and *d*; as, *Tal* *dale*, *tun* *do*, *unter* *under*, *Wort* *word*. But *t*, protected by *s*, *ç*, or *f*, did not take the second shifting and corresponds to *t*; as, *Hast* *haste*, *Nacht* *night*, *Kraft* *craft*. This last example is one of many illustrations of the fact that cognates may have diverged in meaning.

2. *d* and *th*: as, *diß* *thick*, *beide* *both*, *Bab* *bath*. But *d*, protected by *n* or *l*, may not have shifted and may correspond to *d*; as, *senden* *send*, *Gold* *gold*.

3. *ß*, *ñ*, *ñ*, *z*, and *ç* often correspond to *t*; as, *das* *that*, *besser* *better*, *Fuß* *foot*, *zwei* *two*, *Hitze* *heat*. But a sibilant not due to shifting is found in both languages, though not necessarily in quite the same form; as, *schwimmen* *swim*, *küssen* *kiss*, *Stein* *stone*, *singen* *sing*.

4. *p* and *p*. Except in the combination *sp*, as in *springen* *spring* and *lispehn* *lisp*, *p* belongs regularly to words borrowed after the shifting; thus, *Priester* *priest*, from Latin; *Pumpe* *pump*, from Low German.

5. *pf* and *p*. Though *pf* occurs in words of Germanic origin, for example *hüpfen* *hop*, it is found chiefly in words borrowed from other languages before the shifting; as, *Pfund* *pound* and *Pflanze* *plant*, both from Latin.

6. Initial *b* and *b*; as, *Bahre* *bier*, *Bett* *bed*. Medial and final *b* is commonly *v* or *f*; as, *Taube* *dove*, *Grab* *grave*, *Weib* *wife*.

7. German *f* may represent a Germanic *f*; as, *falten* *fold*, *steif* *stiff*, *Wolf* *wolf*. Or it may represent, medially or finally, a Germanic *p*; as, *helfen* *help*, *offen* *open*, *Schaf* *sheep*, *tief* *deep*.

8. *t* or *d* and *k*, *c*, or *ck*; as, *trinken* *drink*, *kalt* *cold*, *leden* *lick*. Sometimes the correspondence is to *ch* or *tch*; as, *Kirche* *church*, *Strecke* *stretch*.

9. German *dh*, which comes sometimes from Germanic *k*, sometimes from Germanic *h*, is represented in English by *k*, *gh*, or *tch*; as, *suchen* *seek*, *hoch* *high*, *Pech* *pitch*.

10. Initial *g* and *g*; as, *gut* *good*, *Garten* *garden*. It is represented by *y* in a few words; as, *gelb* *yellow*, *gestern* *yesterday*. Medial or final German *g* is often found as *y* or *w* in English; as, *Tag* *day*, *Weg* *way*, *Bogen* *bow*, *Bogel* *fowl*.

11. Initial *h* and *h*; as, *Hammer* *hammer*, *Herd* *hearth*, *Horn* *horn*. Medial and final *h* is silent in German; in English it is commonly omitted or appears as *gh*; thus, *Schlehe* *sloe*, *sehen* *see*, *nah* *nigh*. When *h* is merely a modern orthographic sign to show a long vowel (§ 19, 1), it has, of course, no representative in English.

711. Changes in both English and German after the second shifting, the influence of analogy in disguising or destroying the effects of the shifting, later borrowing from Low German, and other agencies cause many words not to show the correspondences set forth in the preceding paragraphs. The consonants which were not concerned in the shifting, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *w*, and, in part, *s*, are to a considerable degree the same in both languages. German *j* usually corresponds to English *y*. Vowels and diphthongs also have their laws of correspondence, but they are too remote and intricate for profitable consideration here.

BRIEF HISTORY OF GERMAN

712. **High and Low German.** In general, Low German (*Niederdeutsch*), of which English is an offshoot, occupies the lowlands of northern Germany, while High German (*Hochdeutsch*), which is more widely spread, extends over the central and southern portions and beyond the boundary of the present empire into Switzerland and Austria. Strictly speaking, there is no High German language. What actually

exists is a number of dialects which have enough in common to be considered High German, though they differ from one another in many particulars. The same is true of Low German. The differences between High and Low German are greatest in the extreme South and North, while the dialects of central Germany occupy, linguistically as well as geographically, an intermediate position.

1. In fact, another classification into Low (*Nieder-*), Middle (*Mittel-*), and Upper German (*Oberdeutsch*) is quite common and indicates more clearly the geographical position of the dialects. The term "High German," which includes both Middle and Upper German, is kept here on account of its wide currency and because the literary language (*Schriftsprache*) is usually so called. The literary language actually took its start, however, in Middle German, a circumstance which greatly helped in its spread.

2. Low German need not concern us further here, as none of its dialects has become a generally recognized literary language, though books and other publications appear in some of them. The same is true of the High German dialects, as the literary language is not a development from a single dialect. The origin of this literary language, which is nearly always what we mean when we speak of German, is briefly considered in the following paragraphs.

713. Periods. It is customary to speak of three periods in the history of High German: 1. Old High German, down to about 1100. 2. Middle High German, from about 1100 to about 1500. 3. New High German, from about 1500 to the present. As a matter of fact, the changes in the language were gradual and were accomplished faster in one region than in another. Dates are therefore misleading, in a way, but those given serve to mark roughly actual changes in the language.

714. Changes in the Periods. The oldest German literature that has come down to us goes back little, if at all, beyond 800 A.D., though isolated words occurring in old glosses and legal documents are found somewhat earlier. German tribes were, however, playing an important part

in European history several centuries before the oldest of this literature. Their language was more homogeneous at that earliest period than now. The differences between High and Low German in sounds and grammatical forms must have been relatively slight, but the second consonant shifting (§ 709), which was completed in the Old High German period and which affected the South German language greatly and the North German scarcely at all, brought about a distinct separation. Other variations, also unequally distributed over different parts of the country, have resulted in sharper differentiation and consequent multiplication of dialects, and the process still continues.

1. Old High German is marked, among other characteristics, by stronger, fuller endings. In Middle High German the vowels of the endings were generally weakened to e or even dropped after the weakening. This resulted in an actual lessening of the number of distinct grammatical forms, and they have grown fewer in New High German. The changes in sounds and inflections in the New High German period, though they are neither few nor unimportant, sink into relative insignificance, however, in comparison with the creation of the literary language.

715. Origin of Literary Language. In the earliest period Latin was the recognized literary language. The literature in German was scanty, and the lack of a unified language was therefore of no importance. Nor was there a distinct literary language in the Middle High German period, though the number of works in German grew constantly larger. The literature of the period originated mainly in South Germany; there was a conscious effort on the part of some of the poets to use a different dialect than their own; and the dialects were themselves more alike than later. These causes gave a certain degree of linguistic unity, which was, however, lost before the end of the period. The next era brought many changes. The invention of printing made the multiplication of books easy, and the rise of the burgher

class created an increasing demand for books in the vernacular, though Latin still retained its hold on the learned. The dialectical differences had become greater, while the growth of commerce made some common medium of intercourse more desirable. To meet in some measure this need, the imperial chancery had already made use of a sort of compromise language. This was also true of some of the states of the empire. The chancery of Saxony, for example, was particularly influential in this regard. Such an official language was, of course, limited in scope, but it was a convenient starting point.

Luther gave the great impulse to the creation of literary German. He wished to reach the widest public possible and deliberately chose, as he himself says, to "speak after the manner of the Saxon chancery." This language, enriched and enlarged by him, was employed in his voluminous German writings and in his translation of the Bible. His New Testament first appeared in 1522 and the whole Bible in 1545. The new literary language gained ground slowly but ultimately spread over all Germany. It must now be considered the German language. All else is dialect.

The literary language, which thus became established in the sixteenth century, has not remained unchanged, though the general diffusion of education and a great and widely read literature, together with other causes, make it more stable now than formerly. Its history can therefore be divided into periods. The present period can be regarded as beginning with the great writers of the eighteenth century, for though the usage of to-day differs in minor matters from theirs, the language of men like Goethe and Schiller is still modern.

This literary language, which we now designate simply as German, is, as the foregoing brief account of its origin shows, a more or less artificial product. It is in universal

use as the medium of general intercourse all over the country, in the schools, in newspapers, magazines, and books generally, and is the normal mode of speech of the educated classes. But it has not driven out the dialects, which are still the ordinary means of intercourse of millions of Germans. In fact, few of the educated classes even are so wholly unaffected by the dialects among which they live that their manner of speech does not reveal the region from which they come.

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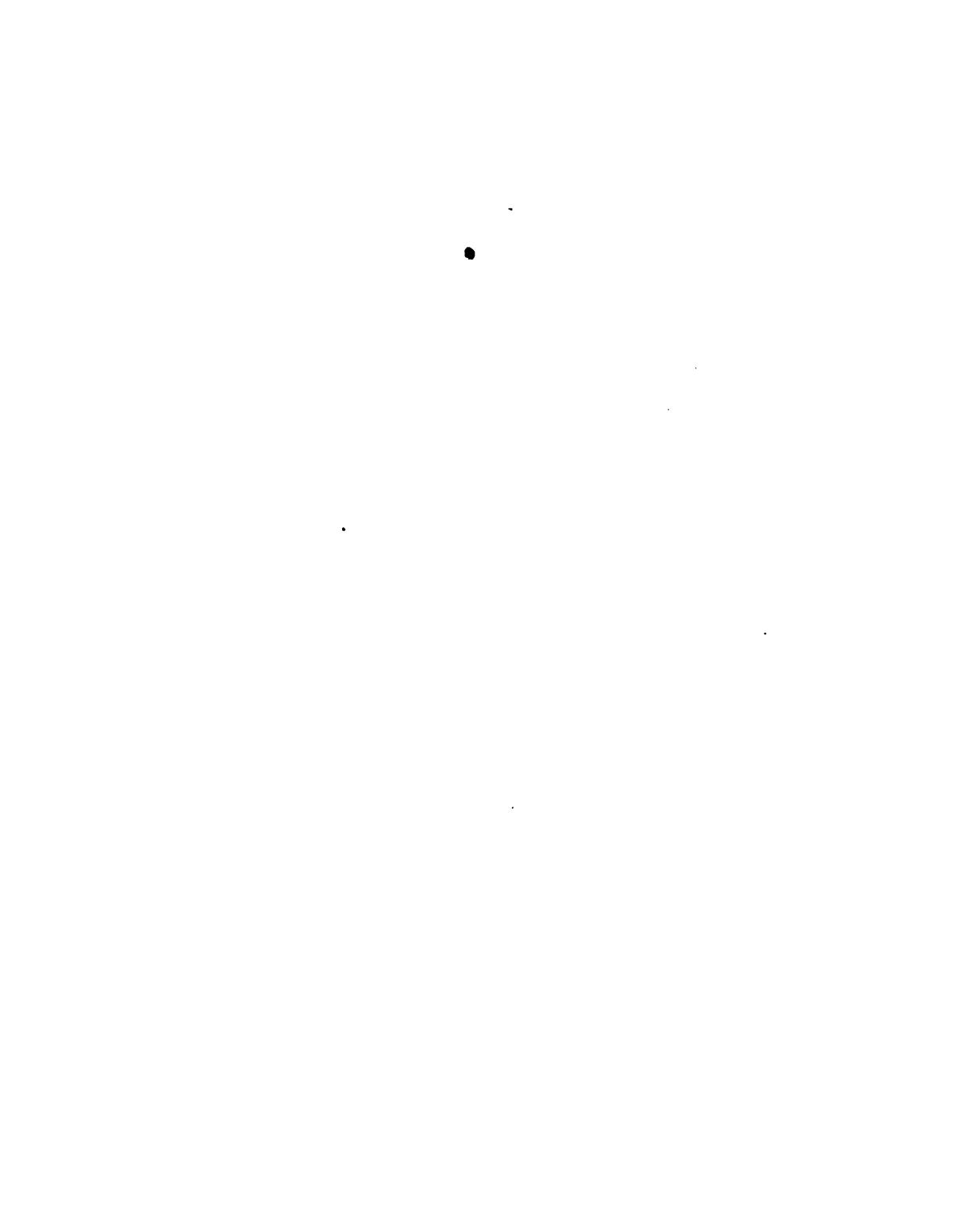
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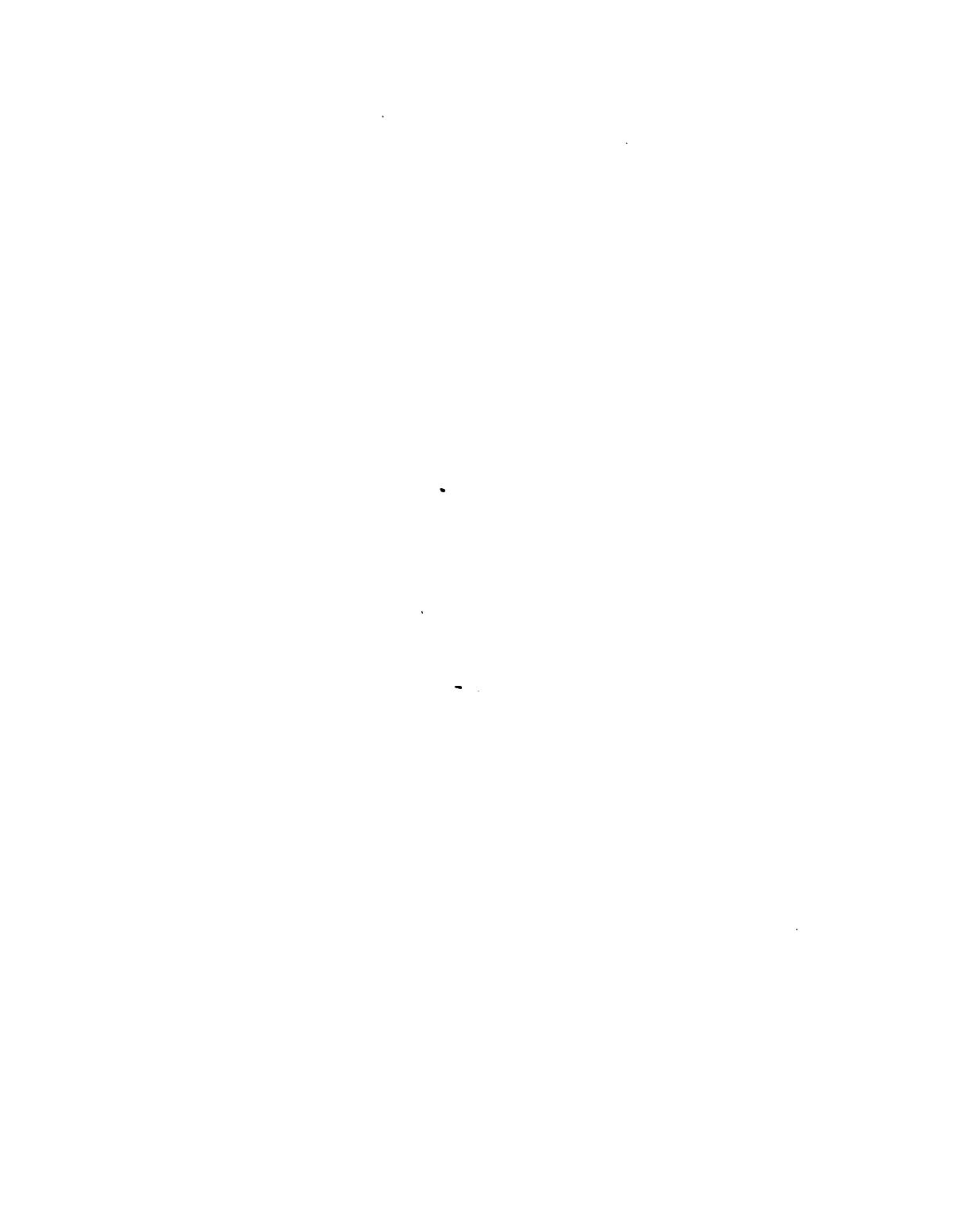
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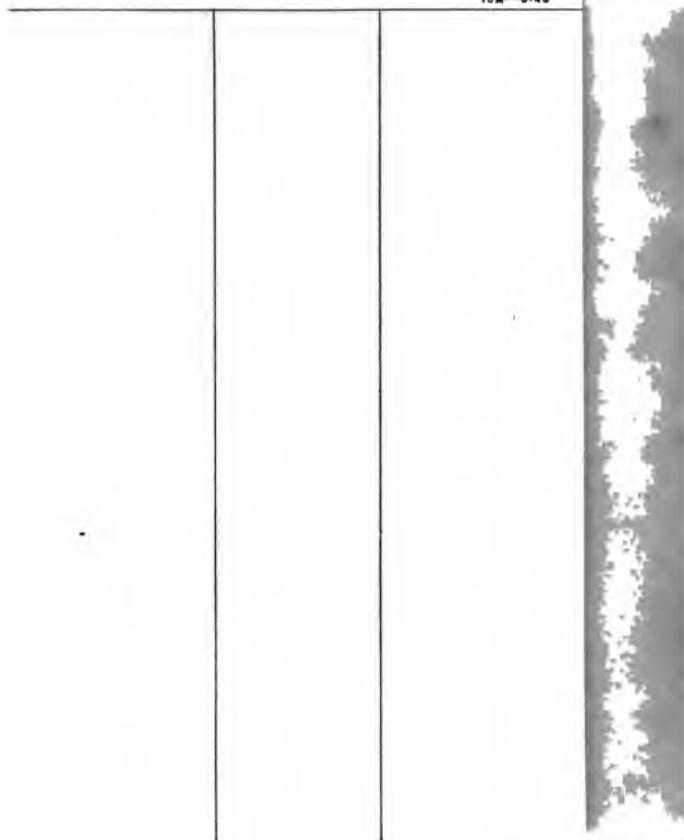






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